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ABSTRACT

This action research project implemented an intervention program to increase prosocial skills among 3- to 5-year-olds in at-risk prekindergarten classrooms. Participating were 65 students from 2 prekindergarten classrooms in 2 schools. Evidence of problems in social skills was gathered through anecdotal records and observational checklists completed for 39 students. Analysis of probable cause data revealed that students demonstrated a lack of emotional intelligence that inhibited the development of social competence. Area early childhood professionals reported that students exhibited an inability to handle conflict, a lack of cooperation, poor relationships, and an inability to use expressive language in emotional situations. The intervention was comprised of cooperative learning activities, training in emotional intelligence, incorporation of multiple intelligence lessons, implementation of Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program lessons, and inclusion of an anti-bias curriculum. Post-intervention data indicated that the targeted prekindergarten students demonstrated an increase in prosocial behavior and emotional intelligence and that learned social skills transferred across the curriculum. (Nine appendices include data collection instruments and sample materials. Contains 32 references.) (Author/KB)

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TEACHING PROSOCIAL SKILLS TO YOUNG CHILDREN TO INCREASE EMOTIONALLY INTELLIGENT BEHAVIOR

Karen Kolb

Sandy Weede

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An Action Research Project Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the School of Education in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master in Teaching and Leadership

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ABSTRACT

This action research project implemented an intervention program to increase prosocial skills in three-five year old children in at-risk pre-kindergarten classrooms. These children lived in low-income areas of a large city in the Midwest. Evidence of this problem included anecdotal records and observational checklists. These were used to relate the following: how students interacted with peers and adults, how they engaged in play activities, how they reacted and responded in conflict situations, and how they approached problem solving.

Analysis of probable cause data revealed that students demonstrated a lack of emotional intelligence that inhibited the development of social competence. Area early childhood professionals reported that students exhibited an inability to handle conflict, a lack of cooperation, poor relationships, and an inability to use expressive language in emotional situations. Research literature also indicated that socio-economic levels, family structure, lack of quality childcare practices, and violence in the media contributed to poor prosocial behavior in young children. In addition, the prejudices and biases of the family and school contributed to a lack of regard for differences.

A review of solution strategies resulted in the selection of the following interventions: the use of cooperative learning, the inclusion of emotional intelligence training, incorporation of multiple intelligence lessons, implementation of *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program* lessons, and the inclusion of antibias curriculum.

Postintervention data indicated that the targeted pre-k students demonstrated an increase in prosocial behavior and emotional intelligence and that learned social skills transferred across the curriculum.

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CHAPTER 1

PROBLEM STATEMENT AND CONTEXT

General Statement of the Problem

The students of the targeted at-risk pre-kindergarten (pre-k) classes demonstrate poor social skills and lack of regard for differences in others. Evidence of this problem includes anecdotal records and checklists kept by the teachers. These records and checklists are used to relate the following information: how students interact with peers and adults, how they engage in play activities with others, how they react and respond in conflict situations, how they make choices and accept consequences, and how they approach problem solving. Additional checklists are also completed by teachers in these classrooms that document how frequently they are called upon to intervene in social situations with their students.

Immediate Problem Context

Site A

Site A was originally built in 1903 with eight rooms to accommodate 300 students. In 1909, four more rooms were annexed to accommodate 150 more students. The first addition was completed in 1916, making it a kindergarten through twelfth grade school. In 1937 this site became a kindergarten through eighth grade school due to the construction of a new high school. In 1987, the building changed again to house only kindergarten through fourth grade. Site A is a brick building with three floors. Many windows are bricked over to conserve heat. Until 1999, the building was heated with a coal boiler. This building is not handicapped accessible.

Site A contains 15 regular division classrooms, three per grade level with an average classroom size of 22 students. It also holds two self-contained special education classrooms, an at-risk pre-k classroom, a special education pre-k classroom, a computer lab, a library, and a reading room. The boys' and girls' locker rooms are currently being used as music and art rooms. This site also houses an in-school health care center in collaboration with a local hospital. The 100% female staff consists of 20 certified teachers, two pre-k non-certified assistant teachers, a computer assistant, a library manager, and two speech and language therapists. Ninety-six percent of the staff is White and 4% are African American.

Of the 359 students who attend Site A, 46% are White, 49.6% are African American, 4.2% are Hispanic, and 0.3% is Asian Pacific Islander. Among them, 85% of the students come from low income households. Speech and language services are provided to 24% of the student population and 1.4% receive English as a Second Language (ESL) services. The attendance rate is 93% with 36 students who are chronically truant. The mobility rate is 48.7%. Approximately half of the students who attend Site A in kindergarten will have moved by fourth grade (School Report Card, 1998-1999).

Students at Site A continue their education at a middle school where 76.4% of the 400 students are low income, 61.4% are African American, 30.6% are White, 6.7% are Hispanic, and 1.2% are Asian Pacific Islander. At this middle school, attendance is 90.9% with a 51% mobility rate. Students then complete their education at a high school with 900 students. The high school demographics are 48.3% White, 44.5% African American, 5.6% Hispanic, and 1.6% Asian Pacific Islander. High school attendance is 89.2% with 36.2% mobility rate (School Report Card, 1998-1999).

The teachers at Site A believe:

> All of our students are capable of learning and [we] recognize the fact that the students come to us with varied experiences. Our goal is to meet the needs of students in making them life-long learners by: providing them a variety of experiences to enhance academic achievement and develop positive self-concepts, maintaining high expectations, and providing a safe environment to help them grow into productive members of society. We also believe that the success of the students and school relies on cooperative efforts of students, parents, and the community (School Mission Statement, 1998).

Site A has several community partnerships. One partnership is with the Farm Bureau whose participation in school is limited to showing farm animals at school assemblies. A local hospital provides one volunteer for each classroom to work with students once per week. The nearby Methodist church provides tutoring twice a week to students who need it.

Site A is a Title I school where federal funds are distributed because of the low economic factors of the families whose children attend this school. Students can participate in free breakfast and lunch programs. They receive art, music and physical education classes each week. The school has recently implemented a special education inclusion program for regular division third and fourth grade science and social studies classes daily. At-risk pre-k and special education pre-k programs are offered for children with special needs. Two speech and language pathologists work part-time and regularly carry a caseload of 87 students.

Every classroom is equipped with at least two computers and students receive additional computer lab time once a week. They also receive library time once per week. A certified reading teacher works with small groups of students during the day as well as hosting a before

school reading program for fourth graders. The school provides an after school reading program for second and third grade students. Students are also involved in the Accelerated Reading (AR) program. Classroom teachers occasionally provide gifted students with enrichment activities.

The Student Achievement Plan (SAP) for Site A includes the following goals: use of adequate vocabulary; application of sight words to daily reading and writing; ability to identify the main idea and details in paragraphs; ability to solve multiple step story problems; increased exposure to historical events, people, places and time periods; increased listening skills; ability to write a paragraph; and exposure to science terminology and experiments.

Classroom A is a pre-k classroom divided into ten centers that include writing, computers, art, science, dramatic play, kinesthetic/large motor, sensory table, and construction and blocks. Low bookshelves and shelving units divide the learning centers. Classroom A has hardwood floors and carpeting. The classroom has a short set of stairs leading to an outside door. The pre-k classroom serves a morning session and an afternoon session. The student-to-teacher ratio is 18 to two. Students participate in small group learning activities, story time, large motor movement, snack time, and learning center time. Students receive monthly nutritional food information offered through the Cooperative Extension Services of the state university. Bus transportation is provided for morning students who live one and a half miles from school.

Site A has 35 students, 18 in the morning session and 17 in the afternoon session. Seventeen of these students are female and 18 are male. Of the 35 students, 19 are white, 7 are Black, 7 are biracial, and 2 are Hispanic. On student speaks no English. Twelve of the students live in single parent-households, and 22 of the parents need GED's. All 35 students have mothers who had their first child when they were under the age of 18. Twenty-four of these 35

students have developmental delays of six or more months.

Site B

Site B is a public school, at-risk pre-k program funded by a state block grant and serving students who are between three and five years of age. This is a newly funded program for the 2000-2001 school year. It is housed in a high school located in the same public school district; the high school serves students in the ninth through the twelfth grade.

The school was built in 1853 and was the first high school in the city. It is the seventeenth oldest high school west of the Appalachian Mountains. When it was built, the surrounding neighborhood was upper income and mostly white collar which contributed to the nickname *Bowtie High*. As the area deteriorated, the nickname was lost. The geographical area served by the high school is now considered lower middle to low income. The area has been highly profiled in recent months for gang activity and crimes, violence and murder, and drug trafficking.

The original building is neoclassic in style with wide, steep steps and large stone pillars and statuary in front. There have been several additions to the early structure. The last and largest was completed from 1959 to 1962 when another gymnasium, sixteen classrooms, and six science labs were built with an expansive foyer joining them to the original construction. The high school is located on 5.2 acres of land that contains two football fields, one baseball diamond, eight tennis courts, and a public swimming pool as well as the buildings themselves.

The high school is staffed by 88 teachers and administrators and 47 support staff which includes teacher associates, secretaries, social workers, counselors, security guards, a school librarian, an in-house school nurse, cafeteria workers, and custodians. There are approximately 990 students enrolled in the current school year, which reverses a trend over the past years

toward decreased enrollment. These students are offered a diverse curriculum that includes college preparatory classes, a fine arts curriculum, physical education, junior Air Force ROTC, and a business academy for non-college bound students who seek careers in business. The tri-county orthopedic department is also located in the high school and serves students who are physically challenged. This is done in conjunction with a large special education department which serves students who are visually impaired, learning disabled, mentally challenged, and behaviorally disabled as well as physically impaired. Advanced curriculum placement is available for students who excel in English, foreign languages, mathematics, history, and science. There are four computer labs in the school as well as computers in most classrooms-all of which are Internet accessible. All vocational programs were eliminated several years ago for economic reasons. Extracurricular activities include athletic, scholastic, civic, and fine arts opportunities for students. As of this school year, an at-risk pre-k is also available to students, parents, and people in the neighborhood.

The student body of the high school is 51.0% African American, 46.1% White, 1.6% Asian Pacific Islander, 1.4% Hispanic, and 0.0% Native American. Forty percent of these students are considered low-income and 0.7% is limited English proficient. The dropout rate is 9.4% for grades nine through twelve. School attendance is at 91.6% with a 19.2 % mobility rate per year and a chronic truancy rate of 12.8%. At this school, 68.4% of the students' parents or guardians have personal contact with the school staff during the year. In comparison, the district contact rate is 88.1% and the state rate is 96.1% (School Report Card, 1999).

The pre-k classroom itself is located in a large room with hardwood floors and six windows that are partially boarded up to conserve heat. It was freshly painted at the beginning of the school year and is bright and colorful with checked shades, carpets, and wallpapered

chalkboards. Since this is a new program, all furniture and equipment is brand new, brightly colored, and state-of-the-art. The bathroom and sink are located down the hallway in a staff lounge. There are no built in storage closets or shelves and extra equipment is stored in large metal cabinets around the room. There are nine separate centers in the room: listening, blocks and construction, woodworking, family living, manipulatives, writing, library, art, and discovery. There is also an area used to eat snacks. Carpeting, shelving, and tables divide center areas.

The program operates two classes each day-a morning and an afternoon session. Both are multiage classrooms with 3-, 4-, and 5-year-olds mixed together. The morning class has 16 students; there are 6 girls and 10 boys. The afternoon class has 14 students of which 8 are girls and 6 are boys. Four children have left the program during the current school year. Since this program is in its initial year of operation, there are no statistics available for mobility. Of the 30 children who attend, 13 are White, 11 are African American, 4 are biracial, and 2 are Asian Pacific Islander. Two of the children are from homes where no English is spoken and they speak very little English themselves. Eighteen of the children are from single parent families, and 21 are from low income families and qualify for free or reduced lunches. Eight of the mothers of these children need adult education to complete their GEDs. Sixteen of the mothers of these children had their first children when they were less than 18 years of age. Twenty-four of the children have significant developmental delays (six months or more) according to the Battelle Developmental Inventory.

This classroom is staffed by two full time White females, a teacher and a teacher associate (TA). At this time the program has a parent educator on a part-time basis one day per week. The teacher and the TA also provide parent education.

Since parent participation is a mandatory part of this program, parents whose schedules permit are asked to attend one session per week with their children. Parent and child activities are also sent home with the children twice each month to be completed and returned. Every other month there is a family fun night that provides activities for all of the family. Speakers from the community are also provided for adults; they discuss issues in mental and physical health, nutrition, parenting skills, conflict resolution, and child development.

The children are in school Monday through Thursday; the AM class is from 8:45-11:30 and the PM class is from 12:30-3:15. The classroom schedule begins with a 30-minute circle time that is followed by an hour of center time. Snack is served during this period. Center time is followed by a story time that takes 20-30 minutes daily. Next there is a time for small group activities that vary each day. Cooperative learning activities take place during this time as well as *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program* lessons. After small group time, the children have 15 minutes of music and movement. Then they play outdoors for 20 to 30 minutes.

Additional services provided to this program are varied. This program receives diagnostic services from the local school district. The district also provides speech therapy on site to the children who need it. Once a month an instructor from a local food and nutrition program comes to the classroom to cook and discuss nutrition with the children. The children all receive bus transportation to and from school; they are picked up and dropped off at their homes. This program is funded to receive transportation for one field trip per month and one paid field trip per year.

Both pre-k programs at sites A and B are considered at-risk, are located in the same school district, and are governed by the same early childhood administrators, policies, and

procedures. Students are screened for pre-k programs using the Battelle Developmental Inventory which is a standardized screening tool used nation-wide. This screening is the major qualifying factor for acceptance into a district pre-k program. Children are recognized as having delayed development if they score more than six months below their chronological age. Other factors that help qualify children for these programs include family income level, parent education level, child health factors, membership in a minority group, child's low birth weight, and family structure. When a program is full, the children are placed on a waiting list or referred to another program.

Pre-k students attend school four days per week, Monday through Thursday. Fridays are reserved for teacher preparation activities, monthly professional development activities, parent conferences, and home visits. All programs use authentic assessment (The Work Sampling System) to evaluate student progress and development. Students are assessed using checklists, anecdotal notes, student portfolios, and summary reports. This occurs three times each year-fall, winter, and spring.

The Surrounding Community

The school district in which these pre-k programs are located serves a population of 111,400 people. The district enrolls over 15,258 students and employs 1,087 teachers. The average number of years teaching experience is 15.5. Half of the teachers in the district have their master's degrees; 77% of the district teachers are female and 23% are male. A teacher's salary averages $40,082. An administrator's salary averages $67,628. The superintendent's salary averages $120,000. The district spends an average of $3,719 per student per school year (School Report Card, 1998-1999).

The school board consists of seven members. The district operates with one superintendent, three assistant superintendents, one comptroller/treasurer, and 19 directors of special services and staff developers.

The district has four high schools, an alternative high school, 12 middle schools, 14 primary schools, a middle school for the gifted, a kindergarten through eighth grade magnet school for the arts, an adult education center, and an early childhood center. The district's high school graduation rate is 69.8% with an 11.9% drop out rate. District attendance is 92.8% with a 37.9% mobility rate. Chronic truancy has a rate of 7.3%, which is almost four times higher than the state level. Parental involvement within the district is 88.1%. The average district primary and middle school classroom contains 22 students while the high school classrooms average 15 students (School Report Card, 1998-1999).

Site A is located on the north side of the city. This geographic area is bordered by the city's downtown on the south, the river on the east, the river bluff on the west, and a main highway crossing the river on the north. The population of the area is 8,849 with 2,845 households. The average price for a home in this area is $24,800 (in contrast to $83,300 for the city in general). Residents of this area are African American, Hispanic, White, and Vietnamese. This area has a very high mobility rate that is reflected in the student mobility rate of Site A (Economic Development Council, 1998).

Three large industrial factories and a dozen small factories dot the riverfront in this area. The other businesses in the area are small and typically family owned. The area also contains the central fire station, the city bus garage, a middle size grocery store, three small ethnic grocery stores, a large cathedral, and several small churches. It houses two social service agencies that provide food, clothing, temporary financial assistance, counseling, after school programs, and

day care. There is an additional food bank and a free clinic that provides medical assistance to low income and uninsured residents. There is also a large hospital on the western edge of this area that has a free family and pediatric clinic.

Site B is located in the central area of the older section of the city. The boundaries encompass a large residential area that is intersected by a major interstate highway. Businesses in this area are largely small stores, fast food restaurants, and small private professional offices. There is a private university in the area as well as a number of churches, the county health department, and a branch of the public library. There are five active neighborhood associations who are concerned with issues such as safety, elimination of blighted areas, and establishment of a sense of neighborhood pride and community. The population of this area is approximately 32,300 with 12,300 households. Residents are African American, White, Hispanic and Asian. The average price for a home in this area ranges from $21,300 in the southern sections to $46,500 in the northern sections while $83,300 is the average for the city in general (Economic Development Council, 1998).

Over 75% of the residents who send their children to both Sites A and B live in poverty which qualifies both areas for Title I primary and middle schools. Because of the presence of drug trafficking, prostitution, and gang activity and violence, both are considered high crime areas of the city and have special police task forces assigned to them.

These sites are located in a medium sized metropolitan city located in the Midwest. It has a population of 111,400 and contains 44,00 households. The population of the Metropolitan Surrounding Area (MSA) is 346,300 with 132,500 households. Of this population, there are 33,200 single parent households. The White population is 75,400, the African American population is 27,700, the Hispanic population is 4,800, and the Asian Pacific Islander population

is 3,500. Eighty-three percent of the residents of the city are high school graduates, 20% completed four years of college, and 11% completed five or more years of higher education. The average ACT score is 21.95. The median family income in the city is $48,100. In the MSA, there are 124 public elementary schools, 26 public high schools and 22 parochial schools. The workforce in the MSA is 297,200. Twenty-three percent of the workforce is considered goods producing and 77% are in non-manufacturing jobs. The unemployment rate as of December 1998 was 3.3% (Economic Development Council, 1998).

A council and a city manager govern the city. The city's assets include a large main library downtown with additional branches in the residential areas, three large hospitals, a mental health center, a health education center, a major university, a museum of the arts and sciences, a major newspaper, municipal bus transportation, an airport connecting it to all major cities, and semi-professional hockey, baseball and indoor football teams. Recreation opportunities include five public golf courses, a gambling casino, a planetarium, botanical gardens, a zoo, a wildlife park, a nature center, public and private swimming pools, and 12,000 plus acres of parks.

National Context of the Problem

The teachers in the classrooms described above have documented through their anecdotal notes and observations that the students in their classrooms demonstrate a lack of social skills to assist them in interpersonal relationships with peers and adults. Research indicates that this is a problem on a much broader level. In the introduction to *The Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program*, The Committee For Children states that teachers throughout the United States are seeing more of the following behaviors: disruptive and angry outbursts, interpersonal conflicts, off task behavior, aggressive and impulsive behavior, and inability to make choices and accept consequences (Committee For Children, 1991). Research indicates that

these behaviors begin as early as three years of age and that, if they are not remedied, the children exhibiting them could become burdens to society. According to Yoshikawa (as cited in Schwartz, 1999), inappropriate and aggressive social behaviors in young children that are not remedied can lead to delinquent and criminal behavior in older children. In addition, research shows that most aggressive and violent behavior is learned and that the lessons that endure are learned at a very young age (NAEYC and APA Op Ed, April 22, 1999).

Because of examples of extreme school violence in places like Littleton, Jonesboro, Pearl, Paducah, Santee, and other locations over the past several years, there is a proliferation of articles in the news media that discuss the problem of violence in children. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) and the American Psychological Association (APA) issued a news release suggesting that children who learn alternative ways to act will not let aggression and violence become a controlling part of their lives (NAEYC and APA Op Ed, April 22, 1999). They continue by encouraging educators and parents to make teaching prosocial behavior and conflict resolution a part of every young child's early education.

According to Daniel Goleman, there is a national trend for American children to exhibit dropping levels of emotional competence (Goleman, 1995, p. 232). Bodine and Crawford discuss a large survey of parents and teachers that Goleman cites as evidence that children now are more emotionally off-track than ever before (Bodine and Crawford, 1999). Goleman lists the following specific traits and behaviors exhibited by many children in today's society: they feel lonely and depressed, have more fears, are nervous, are inattentive and frequently daydream, act without thinking, argue, lie, destroy property, disobey, talk back to adults, and have quick tempers (Goleman, 1995).

It appears that the lack of prosocial behavior in young children is a national problem as well as a problem in the pre-k classrooms discussed here. There seems to be a consensus that this inability to cooperate and function well with others begins at a very early age-as young as three years of age-and can lead to acts of aggression and violence as children grow older. The *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program* states that children who are chronically violent can become a burden to society and thus perpetuate the spiral of violence (Committee For Children, 1991).

CHAPTER 2

PROBLEM DOCUMENTATION

Problem Evidence

In order to document the extent of poor social behavior in pre-k students, observational records, cooperative learning social skills checklists, and researcher-constructed empathy skills pretests were completed over a four-week period during the third through sixth weeks of the school year. In addition, district early childhood teachers completed surveys designed to investigate the relevance of teaching social skills as well as to document specific curriculum strategies used to teach prosocial behavior. Office referral records for school-wide discipline problems and teacher surveys from one site are included as documentation of this problem.

Sixteen students from Site A and twenty-three students from Site B were involved in this documentation process. Because these two sites both serve children ages three to five years, have the same criteria for program admittance, and use the same curriculum, data has been combined rather than listed by separate sites. Data was gathered in both morning and afternoon classes.

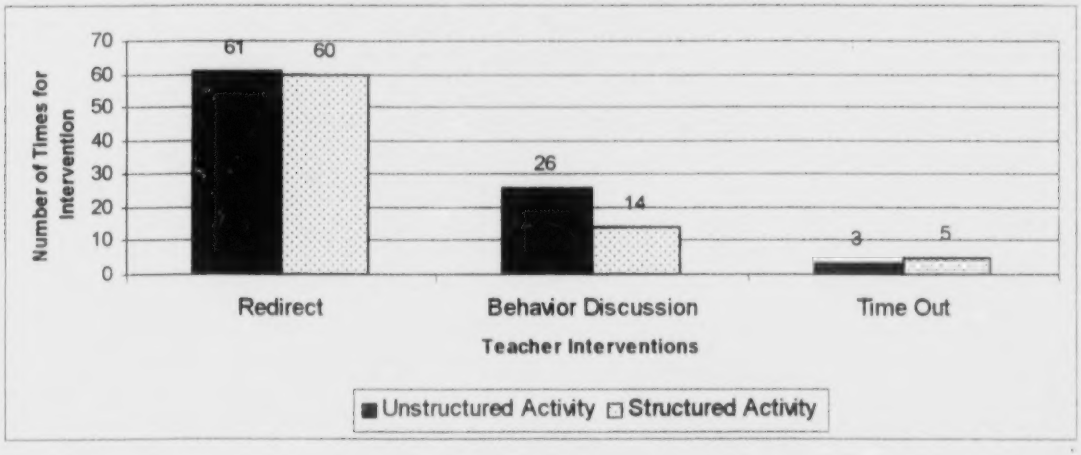

Figure 1. Actions teacher/researchers used to correct student behavior in October 2000.

Data in Figure 1 represents the types of interventions the teacher/researchers used when handling social altercations during structured and unstructured activities in the classroom. An observational checklist was developed by the researchers (Appendix A) and used to compile this data. The structured activities consisted of group story times and cooperative learning times. Unstructured observations were conducted during center times when the children were allowed to choose their work areas and peer groups. Unstructured observations were conducted over a 50 to 60 minute time period; structured activities lasted only about 30 minutes.

Teacher redirection occurs when the teacher targets a specific child behavior that is inappropriate and facilitates alternative choices. For example, if a child is observed throwing blocks, the teacher requests that the child consider the safety of others near by and use the blocks correctly. The teacher removes a child from a particular situation and discusses specific behaviors with the child when redirection fails or the child's actions could have more serious consequences. Time out occurs when a child is removed from the situation because the child's behavior endangers self or others. The child is isolated for a short time after which the teacher reviews and discusses classroom rules and appropriate behavior.

Teacher redirections were performed almost equally during structured and unstructured times. Since structured activities lasted 50% less time, it appears that a greater number of social problems occurred during this time when children were more confined and needed greater attending skills. More behavior discussions were conducted during unstructured times when the children were more mobile and made more positive and negative social choices. Time out occurred during both structured and unstructured activities; both occurred infrequently however.

This data demonstrates that children exhibited a lack of prosocial behavior in both structured and unstructured settings, creating situations that required direct teacher interventions. In other

words, the children did not possess the necessary social skills to solve these problems themselves.

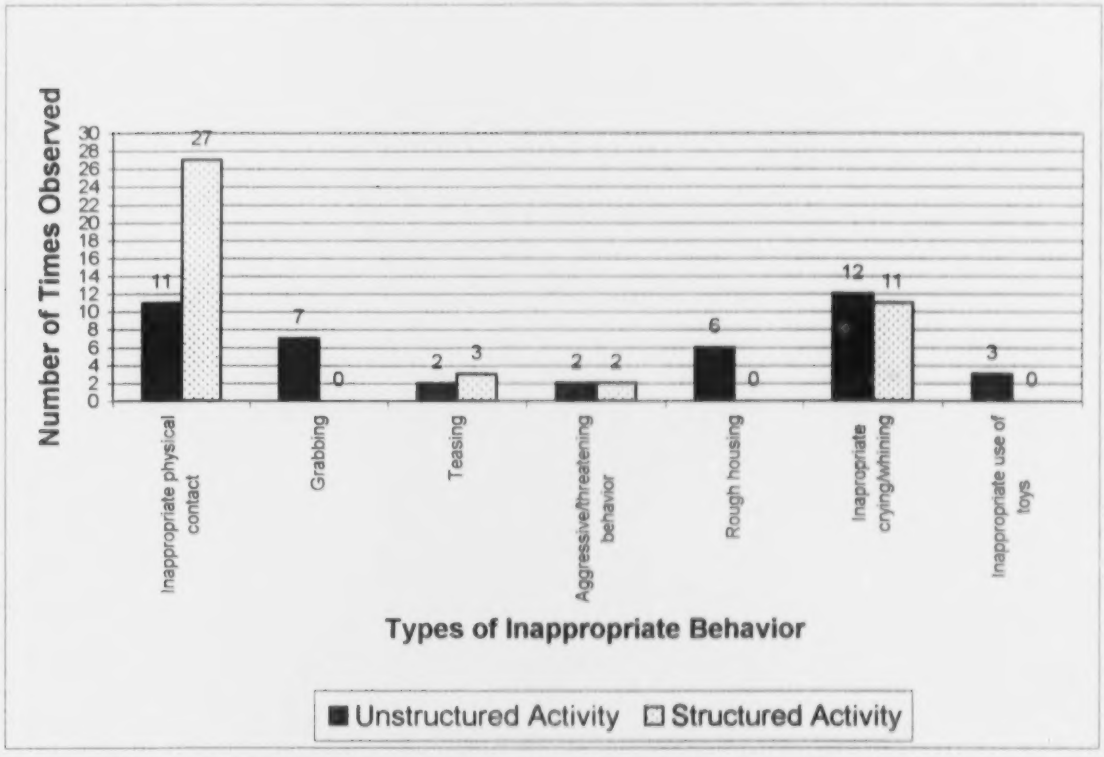

Figure 2. Types of inappropriate student behavior observed during structured and unstructured activities in October 2000.

Student behavior was also observed during structured and unstructured times. As noted in Figure 2, there were over 50% more incidents of inappropriate physical contact during structured activities. This is most likely related to the children's lack of personal space during this time. Physical contact encompassed touching another person on purpose in a hurtful way and in an uncontrollable impulsive way. Some observed examples were playing with another child's hair and elbowing during story time. Teasing included name calling, sticking out tongues and purposely aggravating another child. Aggressive and threatening behavior included hitting, fighting, angry outbursts, threatening to harm another, and violent play. Some observed

examples were using blocks as guns and swords, a child saying "I'm gonna cut your head off" and "I'm gonna kill you," and students tackling one another. Inappropriate crying and whining also included pouting behavior. Observed examples were whining because the student had to wait for a turn and pouting because the child did not like the cooperative learning partner assigned. Grabbing, roughhousing, and inappropriate use of toys were not observed during structured activities. This is most likely due to the close proximity of the teacher to the whole class during structured times. During structured and unstructured activities there were equal amounts of problems with the social issues of teasing, inappropriate crying or whining, and threatening and aggressive behavior.

The data in Figure 2 indicate that inappropriate physical contact and inappropriate crying and whining are the most prominent social problems at the pre-k level. Although there were fewer incidents of grabbing, roughhousing, teasing, and aggressive and threatening behavior, these behaviors are more violent and often generate violent responses.

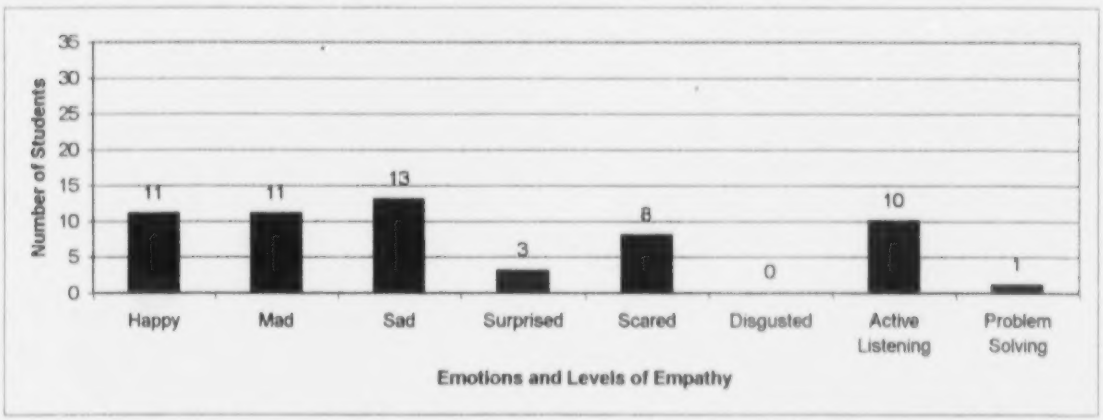

Figure 3. This data represents the pretest of targeted pre-k students' levels of emotions and empathy understanding administered in October 2000.

In order to establish baseline data to document the levels of empathy already attained by the students, the researchers developed a set of photographs (Appendix B) depicting the six basic

emotions and two social situations shown in Figure 3. Each student examined the first six photographs and answered the following questions for each: "How do think this child feels?" and "How can you tell?" Each child had to correctly identify the feeling and either indicate one body or facial feature or give an accurate situation related to the feeling to be considered empathetic. To determine if a child understood the concept of active listening, each student was asked the following questions: "Do you think these children are listening to each other?" and "How can you tell?" Both questions needed to be answered correctly. The accepted characteristics of active listening were eye contact, conversational turn taking, quiet hands, and attentive body posture. The final photograph depicted children involved in a social problem. Students were asked, "What is Lewis' problem?" and "How can you find out if you are right?" Both questions needed to be answered correctly.

Of the 39 students who participated, slightly over 25% recognized the emotions of happiness, anger and sadness. Developmentally, these are the easiest emotions to recognize. Figure 3 indicates that empathy skills are just beginning to emerge in this student population. Figure 3 also denotes students' inabilities to understand and use problem-solving skills in a social context.

Two teacher surveys were conducted (Appendix C, D), one with only district early childhood teachers and the other with primary school teachers from Site A. Although 32 early childhood teachers received surveys, only 13 were completed and returned. Of these, 92% of the teachers listed teaching social skills as one of the three most important skills they teach. Specific skills they ranked are as follows: self-awareness, empathy, sharing, taking turns, respect for others, cooperation, self-control, making positive behavioral choices, self-esteem, and social and emotional well being.

Sixteen primary school teachers received surveys; 12 surveys were completed and returned. Of these, 75% of the teachers listed teaching social skills as one of the three most important skills they teach. Specific social skills listed were as follows: respect, manners, getting along with others, following the rules, friendships, appropriate behavior, self-control, patience, and self-esteem. When asked to determine the reason for these poor social skills, teachers responded as follows: lack of social contact and experiences, lack of parental modeling, lack of parental involvement, too much television and violent video games, lack of practice, low self-esteem, poor role models, lack of value placed on social skills, lack of self discipline, inability to recognize poor social behavior as abnormal, poor parenting skills, lack of morality, and the drug culture. Ninety-two percent of these teachers mentioned poor social skills in the home environment as the cause of inappropriate social behavior in their students.

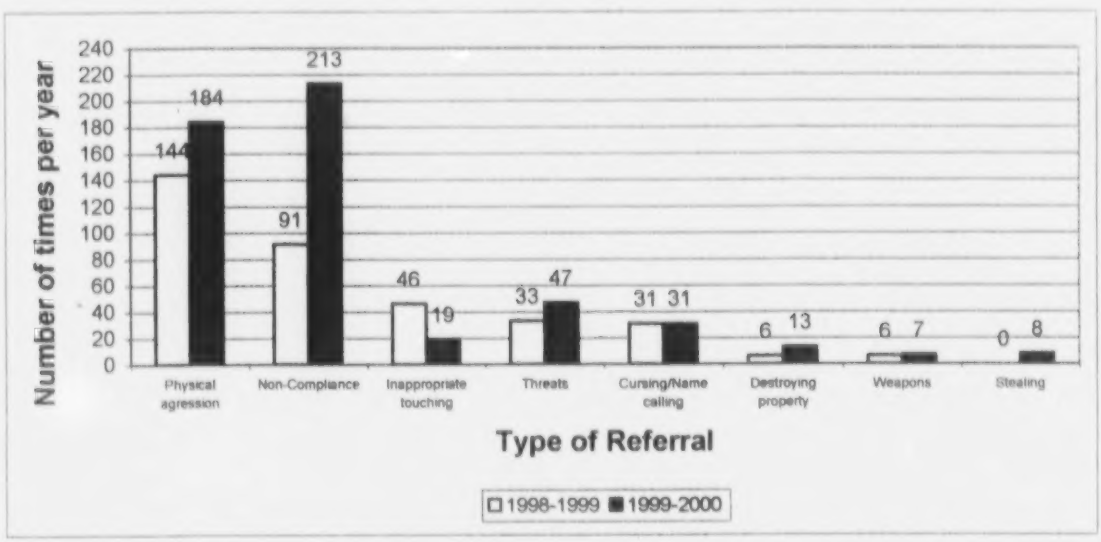

Figure 4. Site A Kindergarten through 4th grade office referrals for the 1998-1999 and 1999-2000 school years.

A summary of discipline problems for the previous two school years at Site A is presented in Figure 4. The principal gathered this information from written referrals of teachers who sent students to the office. The information collected in Figure 4 denotes the number of referrals for the whole school from kindergarten through 4th grade.

Of the eight behavioral categories, 50% showed an increase in the 1999-2000 school year. Although the eighth category, stealing, was not an issue in the 1998-1999 school year, it was added in the 1999-2000 school year as a result of an increase in this behavior. Physical aggression and non-compliant behaviors were the greatest sources of office referrals in both years. There was a 57% increase in non-compliant behavior over the two years. Overall referrals to the office increased by 32% during the same time period, from 357 referrals in the 1998-1999 school year to 522 referrals in the 1999-2000 school year. These behavioral referrals are a result of students demonstrating a lack of prosocial skills and emotional intelligence.

Discipline referral data similar to that in Figure 4 was not gathered from Site B due to its physical location in a high school. The researchers felt it would be difficult to establish a correlation between pre-k and high school age student social behavior. The principal at the high school did not record these same discipline referrals.

Probable Causes

The literature suggests several reasons that document the need to teach prosocial behavior beginning in the preschool years. Prosocial behaviors can be defined as "intentional voluntary behaviors that benefit others;" they include helping, sharing, cooperating, playing peacefully, showing empathy, perspective taking, resolving conflicts, solving social problems, and being assertive (Slaby, Roedell, Arezzo, Hendrix, 1995). It must then be noted that the opposite of *prosocial* is *antisocial*. Antisocial behaviors are destructive personally and to the community in

general. They typically involve disregard for others and uncooperative actions, are egocentric, and lead to aggression and violence against others. When children lack social problem solving skills, they often resort to aggressive tactics to get what they want. One of the many benefits of the development of prosocial behavior in children is that aggressive behavior is reduced. Children who do not develop prosocial behaviors will display antisocial behaviors.

Yoshikawa (1995) states that extensive use of violent behavior in the early childhood years is associated with later antisocial or delinquent behaviors. He defines antisocial behavior as initiating fights, bullying or physical cruelty to people or animals, the use of weapons, stealing, rape, fire setting, chronic truancy, running away, lying, breaking into someone else's car or home, and destruction of property. Antisocial behavior during the juvenile years is predictive of increasingly violent criminal behavior in adulthood.

Slaby et al. (1995) report that teachers today say the children in their classrooms are different than when they first started teaching. "Early childhood educators were struggling to understand and cope with an increasing number of children who exhibited aggressive behavior, high levels of stress, and limited social skills" (1995, p. vii). Slaby et al. state that children acquire both violent behavior patterns and socially constructive behavior patterns through specific developmental steps that can be altered. Early childhood teachers help children develop cognitive, emotional, and action patterns that can prevent the violence that is promoted in other areas of society (Slaby et al., 1995).

Violent behavior is learned; aggressive behavior is often learned at an early age. According to the American Psychological Association (APA), research documents that it is possible to predict how aggressive a child will become as an adult by his level of aggression in school at eight years of age. This includes whether he will demonstrate criminal or other antisocial

behaviors. The APA also states that violence prevention programs that begin early in childhood and continue throughout adolescence are the most successful (APA, 2000).

Children witness violence in society in many ways. They hear it in adult conversations and see it on television in reality in newscasts and in fictional stories. They play violent video games, and they watch violent movies. Some children experience violence firsthand in their homes and neighborhoods where the victims are family members or close acquaintances and the emotional impact is increased. Many children have family members who model violent behavior and use aggression as problem solving. Children are often encouraged to use aggression to solve problems in the classroom and on the playground. Many children also experience violence directly; they are victims of abuse, battering, weapon accidents, sexual assaults, and severe physical punishments (APA, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Slaby et al., 1995; Yoshikawa, 1995). According to these researchers, the detrimental effect of violence on children is now recognized as a major public health crisis. "Some of the identified effects of exposure to violence included increased aggressive or disruptive behaviors, poor achievement, anxiety, fearfulness, social isolation, depression, and emotional distress" (Slaby et al., 1995 p. 8).

In addition to witnessing violence, there are other factors that contribute to violence in children's lives. Involvement with alcohol and drugs at home or in the neighborhood, the easy availability of guns, socioeconomic inequalities and discrimination, gang association, and a general acceptance by society of violent problem solving behavior are all causes of spiraling aggression in children. Violence cannot be avoided; it comes into the lives of children uninvited and easily accepted if prosocial behaviors are not taught and modeled. According to the APA (2000), early experiences that counter the negative effects of violence include positive role models; self-esteem and self-efficacy; supportive relationships; a sense of hope about the future;

belief in oneself; strong social skills; good peer relationships; self-fulfillment from work, chores, and creative efforts; and finally a sense of control over one's life.

Daniel Goleman (1995) relates information from a massive survey of parents and teachers that demonstrates that there is a trend worldwide for children today to be more troubled emotionally than ever before. They are lonelier and more depressed, angrier and more unruly, more nervous, more prone to worry, more impulsive, and more aggressive. He concludes that they lack a fundamental ability that predisposes them to these behaviors; he calls this ability emotional intelligence. He defines emotional intelligence as "abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustration, to control impulse and delay gratification, to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think, to empathize and to hope" (Goleman, 1999, p. 15). He describes emotional intelligence in five domains: self-awareness or recognizing a feeling as it happens, managing emotions or handling feelings appropriately, motivating oneself or using emotions to meet goals, recognizing emotions in others or empathy, and handling relationships or managing emotions in others (Goleman, 1995). "Quite simply, emotional intelligence is the intelligent use of emotions" (Bodine and Crawford, 1999, p. 15). It is evident that children in our schools today exhibit a lack of emotional intelligence. Bodine and Crawford (1999) state that emotional intelligence is not a priority in most schools and that educators are experiencing the ramifications by being overwhelmed by students who are disruptive, disrespectful, irresponsible, and violent.

Statistics related to violence in the United States are alarming. Goleman (1995) reports that in 1990 the juvenile arrest rate for violent crimes was the highest ever; teen arrest for rape doubled; teen murder rates quadrupled; teen suicide rates tripled; and the number of murdered children under fourteen also tripled. According to the Office of Juvenile Justice and

Delinquency as quoted by the APA in their 2000 policy statement on violence, between 1985 and 1994 there was a 40% increase in murders, rapes, robberies, and assaults. Youth were responsible for 26% of this growth in violence. Also as quoted by the APA (2000) from statistics gathered by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, between 1985 and 1995 there was a 249% increase in gun-related murders committed by juveniles. The National Center for Juvenile Justice (as reported by the APA, 2000) predicts that the number of youths arrested for violent crimes will more than double by the year 2010. Yoshikawa (1995) reported that the juvenile arrest rate for murder and nonnegligent manslaughter rose 122.7% between 1982 and 1992. Juvenile arrest between 1984 and 1993 rose 39.6% for robbery and 98.1% for aggravated assault. Bodine and Crawford (1999) discuss the results of a survey conducted by PRIDE, Parent Resource Institute for Drug Education. They report that 973,000 sixth through twelfth grade students carried a gun to school during the 1997-1998 school year; 45% of them were armed at school six or more times. Sixty-four percent of the 973,00 who carried a gun used an illegal drug on a monthly basis. Fifty-one percent had threatened to harm a teacher, and 63% had threatened to harm another student. Of the 973,000, 59% were White, 18% were Black, 12% were Hispanic, 3% were Asian, and 3% were Native American.

In his study on violence among middle and high school students, Daniel Lockwood (as cited in Bodine and Crawford, 1995) reported that most violent incidents began as minor infractions among people who already know each other and that their goal was usually retribution stemming from a value system where violence was acceptable. He found the most common minor infractions that escalated aggression were as follows: 13% reported unprovoked and offensive touching like bumps, hits, slaps, pushes, grabs, shoves, etc.; 13% reported interfering with a possession they owned or were using; 10% reported receiving a request to do something; 9%

said backbiting (talking negatively behind someone's back); 9% said playful teasing, put-downs, or rough physical play; and 7% reported that insults instigated aggressive responses.

According to the Children's Defense Fund (2000), children in the United States are 12 times more likely to die from gunfire than in 23 other industrialized countries combined. They are 16 times more likely to be murdered with a gun and 11 times more likely to commit suicide with a gun. Finally, U.S. children are nine times more likely to die from a firearm accident than children in the other 12 industrialized nations combined. They also state that every one second in America, a public school student is suspended; every 17 seconds a child is arrested; every 7 minutes a child is arrested for a violent crime; every two hours a child or youth under 20 is killed by a firearm; every two hours a child or youth under 20 is a homicide victim; and every four hours a child or youth under 20 commits suicide.

Socioeconomic inequalities are another factor in predicting aggression in children. According to the Children's Defense Fund (2000), nearly one in five American children lives in poverty, approximately 18.9%. The poverty line is currently $13,003 for a family of three or $16,660 for four. Of these, 15.1% are White, 36.7% are Black, 18% are Asia Pacific Islander, 34.4% are Hispanic, and 10.6% are non-Hispanic white. Over 20% are under the age of six and 17.1% are between the ages of six and 17. In this state, 26.5% of all children live in poverty. The APA (2000) states that violence is most prevalent among the poor regardless of race, culture, or ethnicity. Children who live in poor and unstable neighborhoods are more likely to witness violence on a personal level.

Exposure to violence through the media teaches children how to act aggressively and violently themselves. Children today have greater access to televised violence through cable television, satellite TV, videos, interactive video games, and on-line computer networks. The

APA (2000) states that three national studies have concluded that heavy exposure to violence on television is one of the prominent causes of violence in society: The Surgeon General's Commission Report (1972), The National Institute of Mental Health Ten-Year Follow-up (1982), and the American Psychological Association Task Force on Television in Society (1992). The Children's Defense Fund (2000) states that a typical American child is exposed to about 28 hours of television or other media, including the Internet, outside of school per week. By the time children graduate from the eighth grade, they will have seen 100,000 acts of violence on TV. Children are exposed to five violent acts each hour of prime time programming and 26 violent acts per hour during Saturday morning children's programs (Children's Defense Fund, 2000). Children begin to develop the habit of watching television between the ages of two and three years. By the time they are six, 90% of American children watch TV on a regular basis. Because they are usually not yet in school full time, American children ages 2 to 5-years spend more time watching TV than children ages 6 to 17 (Slaby et al., 1995). According to National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), a violent incident is shown on television every six seconds. Children's television and the toys marketed as a result of TV popularity have become increasingly more violent since the deregulation of the broadcasting industry. Ninety-one percent of teachers who responded to a national survey reported increased violence among the children in their classrooms because of cross-media marketing of violent cartoons, toys, and videos (NAEYC, 2000). Children's programming on TV has been found to contain higher levels of violence than any other category (TV Guide, 1992 as cited in NAEYC, 2000).

American TV often glorifies violence, presenting it as legitimate, rewarded, socially approved, heroic, exciting, and funny. Even real life violence in the news is often

sensationalized and repeatedly shown in graphic ways. Young children have very little real life experience to help them understand and evaluate the violence that they see in the media. "From Saturday-morning cartoons to evening crime shows, television provides children with an extensive how-to course in aggression" (Slaby et al., 1995, p. 163). "Research demonstrates that children who are frequent viewers of violence on television are less likely to show empathy toward the pain and suffering of others and more likely to behave aggressively" (NAEYC, 2000, p. 2). Televised violence has been documented to produce the following negative effects in viewers: increased fear of becoming a victim of violence, desensitivity to violence which decreases taking action to help a victim of violence, increased appetite for violent behavior, demonstration of how to obtain desired objects through aggression and violence, and increased male aggression against females from viewing violence in X-rated and R-rated videos (APA, 2000).

Children and youth are involved in violence in three ways; as aggressors, victims, and/or bystanders. "When seemingly harmless patterns of aggression-related behavior are learned in early years and practiced regularly, the behaviors often increase in their violence in later years" (Slaby et al., 1995, p. 2). Children who act aggressively often demonstrate other difficult and maladaptive social behaviors like tantrums, defiance, and failure to cooperate. They are at high risk for loneliness and lack of peer support during difficult times. Their behavior is predictive of serious problems in adulthood including criminal violent behavior, spouse abuse, and a tendency to harshly punish their children. Victims of violence by their peers suffer the consequences of social rejection, depression, and impaired self-esteem and are at-risk for becoming aggressors themselves. Bystanders often contribute to aggression by instigating it, actively encouraging it, or through passive acceptance (Slaby et al., 1995).

> When parents demean and strike each other or their children, when children are encouraged to be bullies or fight back on the playground, and when they have easy access to real or toy guns and other weapons, violence is being taught. When stereotypes and prejudice frame interactions with people who are different from ourselves, the scene is set for violence. Glorifying war and relishing violence in competitive sports may reinforce violent behavior. When violence and sexual aggression are combined in the media, in song lyrics, in multimedia computer games, and in the vernacular, the message of violence (including sexual assault) is reinforced (APA, 2000, p. 6).

Children today have become desensitized to violence, sexuality, drugs and economic conditions. Children are victims of a socially toxic world (Garbarino, 1997). The culture has allowed young children to be exposed to poverty, broken family relationships, drugs, sex, and violence. The main reason children have been exposed to this toxic environment is the decline of parent involvement at home. Garbarino states that research has shown a 50% decrease in the amount of time parents spend with children in the past 30 years (1997).

In the past 30 years, there has been an increase in dual working families and single parent households. With more parents working, there is a generation of children who are unsupervised after school. There are an estimated 3 to 13 million latchkey children (Solomon, 1994). In a study by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, eighth grade students are twice as likely to abuse drugs if unsupervised after school at least 11 hours a week and are more likely to be depressed, have lower grades, and abuse alcohol and tobacco (Solomon, 1994). Garbarino (1997) states "The lack of adult supervision compounds the effects of other negative influences in the social environment for kids" (p.16). In general, parents have less time to model appropriate social behaviors at home.

The breakdown of the nuclear family has also brought about an increase in grandparents raising grandchildren. Parents may leave a child with grandparents due to incarceration, drug addiction, financial difficulties, death or allegations of child abuse. The American Association of Retired Persons (1996) states there has been a 40% increase in the past decade of grandparents raising grandchildren. The 1994 Bureau of the Census (as cited in Brown-Standridge and Floyd, 1999) states, 3.7 million grandchildren and great-grandchildren have reportedly been living in households headed by a grandparent, both with and without a parent present.

Poor parenting skills can also contribute to social problems in children. In Gottfredson and Hirschi's general theory of crime (as cited in Rodney, Tachia, and Rodney, 1999), they state poor parental skills as a major factor in defiant and impulsive adolescents. In a report by Simons, Beaman, Conger, and Chao (as cited in Rodney et al., 1999), economic hardships contributed to parents being more punitive and explosive with their children. Simons et al. (as cited in Rodney et al., 1999) attribute most economic hardships to single mother households and minority families. Stress and economic hardship create more disruptive parenting, causing higher levels of antisocial behaviors.

Many factors contribute to creating an antisocial child. Violence in our society is prevalent and children are exposed at an early age, causing social and emotional problems. Unbalanced parenting skills can cause serious adolescent delinquency. Poverty and changing family structure directly affect the emotional balance of children. All of these areas need to be addressed when investigating the causes of poor prosocial behaviors in children.

The NAEYC Position Statement of Violence in the Lives of Children (2000) proposes that "The early childhood profession has an important role to play in breaking the cycle of violence in the lives of children" by promoting social competence into the total school environment and

daily classroom life and by promoting curriculum and teaching practices that address violence prevention, teach conflict resolution, cooperative learning and respect for diversity.

CHAPTER 3

THE SOLUTION STRATEGY

Literature Review

A review of the literature and research on prosocial behavior and emotional competence in children leads to the following solution strategies: emotional intelligence training, conflict resolution programs and peace training, violence prevention programs, cooperative learning, multiple intelligence theory, and antibias curriculum. A classroom where these skills are taught and utilized is described by Bodine and Crawford (1999):

> Imagine a school or classroom where the learners manage and resolve their own conflicts, both with and without adult assistance. Picture a place where diversity and individuality are celebrated...a place where people listen in order to understand others' viewpoints and perceive conflict as an opportunity to learn and grow...a place where feelings are openly expressed, even anger and frustration, in ways that are not aggressive and destructive...a place where adults and children cooperate instead of acting aggressively or coercively... a place that supports everyone's rights and encourages everyone to exercise his or her responsibilities... a place where peace is viewed as an active process, made day-by-day, moment by moment (p. 6).

According to Elias et al. (1997), the various factions promoting different programs in the movement to improve American education share a common belief that schools play an essential part in preparing our children to become knowledgeable, responsible, and caring adults.

> The challenge of raising knowledgeable, responsible, and caring children is recognized by nearly everyone. Few realize, however, that *each element of this challenge can be enhanced by thoughtful, sustained, and systematic attention to children's social and emotional learning (SEL).* Indeed, experience and research show that promoting social and emotional development in children is "the missing piece" in efforts to reach an array of goals associated with improving schooling in the United States (p.1).

According to Elias et al., teaching students social and emotional skills also increases academic achievement, decreases problem behaviors, and improves the quality of children's relationships overall. They define social and emotional competence as follows:

> Social and emotional competence is the ability to understand, manage, and express the social and emotional aspects of one's life in ways that enable the successful management of life tasks such as learning, forming relationships, solving everyday problems, and adapting to the complex demands of growth and development. It includes self-awareness, control of impulsivity, working cooperatively, and caring about oneself and others (Elias et al., 1997, p. 2).

There are three main goals of structured social and emotional learning. The first is the use of developmentally appropriate practices in direct and indirect instruction in social and emotional skills at all grade levels provided by all school staff. The second is a caring and safe school environment that fosters the social and emotional development of children both at home and at school. The third is the collaboration of home, school, and community to provide extensive experiences both in and out of school that teach positive attitudes, behaviors and values. If the missing piece in education is enhancing the social and emotional life of each student, then until SEL is made a integral part of classroom curriculums, there is no reason to expect to see progress

in reducing violence, substance abuse, lack of caring and affection for others, and intolerance (Elias et al., 1997).

Daniel Goleman states that social and emotional lessons in the classroom must be tailored to the development of the children involved (Goleman, 1995.). He also states that the preschool years are crucial for teaching the foundation skills of emotional intelligence in early childhood settings in more systematic and organized ways. These skills include teaching children to recognize and manage their own feelings, to delay gratification and control impulses, to be self-motivated, to have empathy and perspective taking, and to manage emotions in others. Successful emotional literacy programs are those that are extended out of the classroom and into the real world of the children-on the playground, at home, and in the community. "In short, the optimal design of emotional literacy programs is to begin early, be age-appropriate, run throughout the school years, and intertwine efforts at school, at home, and in the community" (Goleman, 1995, p. 281). The same is true of conflict resolution. "The earlier students are taught to manage conflicts constructively, and the more years the training is continued, the more likely students are to use the conflict resolution procedures and skills for the rest of their lives (Johnson and Johnson, 2000).

Teaching children to be more emotionally intelligent will make them more socially competent. They will exhibit more prosocial behaviors like sharing toys, helping a child who is hurt, trying to comfort a child who is upset, or taking turns. These prosocial behaviors will in turn help reduce violence and aggression. A child cannot be prosocial and aggressive at the same time. Teaching conflict resolution skills assists children in becoming more emotionally intelligent, nonviolent, and prosocial. Thus, the concepts of emotional intelligence, prosocial behavior, violence prevention, and conflict resolution are so interrelated that they are better

discussed or taught as a whole rather than as separate entities. Children who are emotionally intelligent exhibit self-awareness, manage their emotions, are self-motivated, recognize emotions in others (are empathetic and take others' perspectives), and handle relationships (Bodine and Crawford, 1999).

The characteristics used to describe emotional intelligence training programs mirror those used to describe violence prevention and conflict resolution programs. As a result of five years of research studying various prevention programs, the W. T. Grant Foundation Consortium includes the following as ingredients in all prevention programs: emotional skills such as identifying and labeling feelings, expressing feelings, managing feelings, delaying gratification, controlling impulses, reducing stress, and knowing the difference between feelings and actions; cognitive skills such as self-talk or inner dialogue, reading and interpreting social cues, using steps for problem solving and decision making, understanding the perspective of others, understanding behavioral norms, a positive attitude toward life, and self-awareness; and finally, behavioral skills which include nonverbal communication such as eye contact, facial expressiveness, tone of voice and gestures, and verbal communication such as making clear requests, listening to others, helping others, and participating in peer groups (Goleman, 1995).

Effective strategies for early childhood educators to use to help young children develop social problem solving skills begin first with teaching these skills at the appropriate developmental level. Second, early childhood teachers then help children understand their strong feelings and emotions; they teach children that having strong feelings is normal but that acting violently as a result of these feelings is never acceptable. Third, early childhood teachers need to encourage good listening and communication skills by teaching children to clearly and assertively express their own wishes and to be attentive to the wishes of others through active

listening. Fourth, teachers of young children need to help children achieve self-control by teaching them "stop and think" strategies and self-calming strategies. Fifth, teachers provide children in early childhood classrooms practice in generating and connecting solutions and consequences. Sixth, early childhood educators need to teach children to critically evaluate violent and non-violent consequences. Finally, early childhood teachers need to use available resources to assist in putting together a curriculum that help teach children social-problem solving skills (Slaby, Roedell, Arezzo, and Hendrix, 1995).

In order to help students become emotionally intelligent and prosocial, Bodine and Crawford (1999) feel that all classrooms and schools need to develop their own "rights and responsibilities" statements.

> To build the foundation for learners to make responsible choices in the classroom and school, and to develop a culture where human dignity and self-esteem are valued, all individuals must understand their basic human rights, respect those rights for self and others, and learn how to exercise their rights without infringing upon the rights of others. Teaching respect for human rights and the responsibilities associated with those rights begins with the adoption of rights and responsibilities to govern the school and the classroom in it. These rights and responsibilities become the constitution under which the rules and conventions of management and interaction are generated (p. 102).

Rights are described as privileges that everyone has all of the time; they are guaranteed-freedoms that everyone should expect. Responsibilities are described as particular ways one is expected to act or treat someone else. The two go hand in hand; enjoying a right means having the responsibility to engage in behavior that extends that same right to others (Bodine and Crawford, 1999). Statements of rights and responsibilities are generated by the students working

cooperatively to brainstorm and refine a simple list. Some examples follow: the right to be treated with respect and kindness and the responsibility to treat others with respect and kindness, the right to be safe and the responsibility to help make the environment safe for others, the right to be heard and the responsibility to listen to others. The rules and behavioral expectations of the classroom and the school reflect the rights and responsibilities generated. Undesirable behaviors are replaced by responsible behaviors that coincide with everyone's inalienable rights. The rights and responsibilities statement is age appropriate and is discussed frequently in a developmental manner that the children can understand (Bodine and Crawford, 1999).

In her paper "Developing Social Competence in Children" (Schwartz, 1999), Schwartz discusses strategies for creating effective school antiviolence programs. The primary and most important strategy is teaching social competence which includes eight components. Children learn to recognize and understand their own emotions and the emotions of others. They learn to perceive situations accurately so they can interpret social cues correctly and respond accordingly. They learn to understand and predict the consequences of personal acts, especially aggressive acts. They develop the ability to remain calm in order to think before acting and to reduce stress and sadness as well as to control anger and replace aggression with more positive behavior. They are taught social problem-solving skills, cooperative behavior, how to use group processes, and how to develop and maintain peer relationships. They are taught empathy for others, especially for those who are different from them. They are taught peer mediation and conflict resolution. Finally, they are encouraged to choose positive role models and mentors (Schwartz, 1999).

According to Cellitti (1998), there are two components to teaching peace to young children: creating a peaceful classroom and teaching conflict resolution and social responsibility. Creating

a peaceful learning environment includes providing adult role models who facilitate peaceful interactions as well as providing learning materials that are free from bias-gender, racial, age, and cultural stereotypes. Teachers use the every day happenings of the classroom as well as direct instruction to teach peace-making skills and help children develop a sense of empathy for others. It is helpful to designate a special area of the classroom as a "Peace Center" where children go to engage in conflict resolution (Cellitti, 1998).

Bodine and Crawford (1999) define the peaceable classroom using five qualities established by W. J. Kreiler. The first is cooperation-children working together in trusting, helpful, and sharing relationships. The second is communication-children observing carefully, communicating accurately, and listening sensitively. The third is tolerance-children respecting and appreciating people's differences and understanding prejudice. The fourth is positive emotional expression-children expressing feelings in ways that are not destructive or aggressive and learning self-control. The fifth is conflict resolution-children learning the skills to respond to conflict positively in a supportive and caring community.

"Conflict positive schools manage conflicts constructively to enhance the quality of teaching, learning, and school life. They recognize that conflicts are inevitable, healthy, and valuable. Conflicts are not problems-they are part of solutions" (Johnson and Johnson, 1995, p.14). According to Johnson and Johnson (1995), there are many positive results from constructively managed conflicts. They help students with achievement, reasoning, and problem solving skills as well as teaching young people more about themselves and helping them mature. They also teach perspective taking. Students in conflict situations become more cooperative and learn to work in a team that, in the long run, makes them more employable. Conflicts deepen relationships as relationships survive and become stronger under stress.

There are three parts to Johnson and Johnson's approach to teaching students how to manage conflicts constructively. The first is establishing a cooperative environment that utilizes cooperative learning. The second is using purposely-created curricular problems to teach students how to manage intellectual conflicts and to increase student achievement and motivation to learn. The third is establishing a Peacemaker Program where students are taught conflict resolution and peer mediation skills (Johnson and Johnson, 2000).

Between 1988 and 2000, Johnson and Johnson conducted seventeen studies on the effectiveness of conflict resolution training. These mediation studies were done in eight different schools in two countries and included children in kindergarten through ninth grades. Dependent variables measured the following: academic achievement and retention, application of the negotiation procedure to actual conflicts, the degree to which students engaged in "distributive versus integrative negotiations" (maximized their own outcomes versus maximized joint outcomes), attitudes toward conflict, resolutions of conflicts, and reported responses of peer mediators. Before training, the students were involved in daily conflicts that included put-downs and teasing, conflicts over possession of materials and space, physical aggression and fights, academic work conflicts, and turn taking. Student response to these conflicts included referring them to the teacher for resolution, using destructive strategies that escalated the conflicts, and utilizing poor negotiating skills. Pretest and posttest intervention data was collected on the types of conflicts students were involved in and how frequently they occurred (Johnson and Johnson, 2000).

Johnson and Johnson describe the results of their research as follows:

> The findings indicate that students learn the conflict resolution procedures taught, retain their knowledge throughout the school year, apply conflict

resolution procedures to actual conflicts, transfer the procedures to nonclassroom and nonschool settings, use the procedures similarly in family and school settings, and, when given the option, engage in problem solving rather than win-lose negotiations. The results further demonstrate that conflict resolution procedures can be taught in a way that increases academic achievement and that the adults in the school perceive the conflict resolution to be constructive and helpful (Johnson and Johnson, 2000).

Johnson and Johnson (1995) describe six steps in conflict resolution. The first step is to describe what each person in the negotiation wants-what needs have to be met. This includes using the skills of active listening and paraphrasing as well as focusing on the cooperative relationship, stating specific personal goals, and the acknowledgment that these goals are part of the problem. The second step is describing how each person feels. This step includes not only expressing and sharing feelings but also controlling feelings. Since feelings are an integral part of conflicts, there can be no resolution if they are not stated, recognized, and accepted. The third step is the exchange of each party's reasons for the positions they have taken. At this point the problem has been defined and the parties involved give their reasons for their stance in the conflict. This is done by the parties involved expressing cooperative intentions, not only presenting their reasons but listening to the reasons of others, staying focused on wants and interests instead of positions, clarifying all differences, and empowering the other person by negotiating, being flexible, and providing choices. The fourth step is understanding each other's perspectives (or perspective taking) which innately means exhibiting a lack of egocentrism characteristic of conflict behavior. The fifth step is inventing options for mutual benefits or gain. Johnson and Johnson suggest the generation of at least three good solutions before deciding on which one to use in order to maximize the joint outcomes. The final and sixth step is reaching a

wise agreement. This agreement must meet the legitimate needs of all parties and be accepted as fair by everyone involved.

Bodine and Crawford (1999) describe six steps that are similar to but simpler than Johnson and Johnson's. They are: "1. Set the stage. 2. Gather perspectives. 3. Identify interests. 4. Create options. 5. Evaluate options. 6. Generate agreement." (p.174). These steps encourage students in conflict situations to identify their own needs and interests and to work cooperatively to find solutions that meet these needs and interests using skills in negotiation, mediation, and consensus decision making (Bodine and Crawford, 1999).

Teaching preschool children the steps of conflict resolution needs to be developmentally and age appropriate. The steps used are similar to Johnson and Johnson's (as described above) but are necessarily much simpler and involve more adult facilitation-at least initially. Cellitti (1998) describes only four steps to use in conflict resolution for young children. The first is *"Tell us what happened."* Each child involved explains the problem from his personal standpoint. The second step is *"Summarize."* In this step, the adult facilitator summarizes each child's point of view in a manner that brings the child's agreement. The third step is *"What could you do about this problem?"* At this time the children involved in the conflict suggest many possible solutions. The fourth and final step is *"Help the children choose a solution."* At this time the facilitator encourages and allows the children to reach a decision and choose one solution on their own. The decision of the children is accepted as final (Cellitti, 1998).

The Teaching Tolerance Project (1997) uses five steps in describing conflict resolution as it is used in a Shawnee, Ohio classroom. Children are encouraged to ask and answer the following questions: What is the problem?, What are the possible solutions?, Are they good choices or bad choices?, and What's the best one to try? The final step then is "Let's go do it!". The most

difficult step is getting the children to agree on the problem. The problem is not always apparent if two children perceive it differently.

> Every student needs to learn how to manage conflicts constructively. Without training, many students may never learn how to do so. Teaching every student how to negotiate and mediate will ensure that future generations are prepared to manage conflicts constructively in career, family community, national, and international settings. There is no reason to expect, however, that the process will be easy or quick. It took over 30 years to reduce smoking in America. It took over 20 years to reduce drunk driving. It may take even longer to ensure that children and adolescents can manage conflicts constructively. The more years students spend learning and practicing the negotiation and mediation procedures, the more likely they will be to actually use the procedures skillfully both in the classroom and beyond the school door (Johnson and Johnson, 2000).

There are many established programs in emotional literacy, violence prevention, and conflict resolution. One is the Resolving Conflicts Creatively Program, which focuses on preventing violence and training peer mediators and emphasizes that skills needed for violence prevention cannot be separated from emotional competence (Goleman, 1995). Another emotional literacy program is the PATHS (Promoting Alternative Thinking Strategies) curriculum which includes teaching impulse control in the earliest school years, teaching students how to recognize their feelings through emotional-awareness lessons, and teaching anger management (Goleman, 1995; Schwartz, 1999). Brain Power is another violence prevention and emotional literacy program that teaches African American boys to interpret social cues correctly and respond appropriately (Schwartz, 1999). The Second Step Violence

Prevention Program was created and is dispersed by the Committee For Children and includes curricula for pre-k through ninth grade (Schwartz, 1999).

The Second Step curriculum was designed to prevent violence and promote social competence by developing children's skills in the areas of empathy, impulse control, and anger management. It is one of only a few structured programs that begin teaching nonviolence in the preschool years and continue through the ninth grade (Committee For Children, 1992). Empathy includes the abilities to detect, understand, and appropriately respond to the perspectives and feelings of others. Teaching skills that increase these abilities can increase prosocial behaviors and reduce aggressive behaviors (Frey et al., 2000). Impulse control in Second Step includes teaching skills for social problem solving that help children identify problems and brainstorm, evaluate, and implement solutions (Frey et al., 2000). At the preschool and kindergarten level, anger management includes learning to recognize angry feelings, to use strategies to relax (counting and taking deep breaths), and to use self-talk to reduce anger escalation (Frey et al., 2000).

The Second Step Program features lessons that are taught twice weekly. At the early childhood and elementary levels, lessons are structured around large black and white photographs depicting children in various social and emotional situations. All lessons include transfer of training ideas and extension activities that illustrate concepts taught in the lesson. Two puppets, Impulsive Puppy and Slow Down Snail, are used to teach impulse control to the younger children. Second Step, for middle school and junior high school students, emphasizes attitudes and beliefs about aggression, and lessons utilize more videos and group discussions. Many Second Step lessons end with role-playing opportunities for children to practice the concepts being taught.

Grossman et al. (1997) conducted research on the effectiveness of Second Step using a randomized control trial. Before this study was completed, there was very little empirical evidence that social skills or conflict resolution and violence prevention curricula were effective in reducing aggressive and violent behavior among children. Grossman and his colleagues hypothesized that aggressive behavior would decrease and neutral and prosocial behavior would increase more in the intervention group than in the control groups as a result of the implementation of the Second Step program. Forty-one classrooms of second and third grade students from King County, Washington, participated in the study: half of the classrooms were intervention rooms and half were control rooms. Twelve students from each classroom were chosen for intensive behavioral observation as part of the outcome evaluation. The children and teachers were not aware of their selection. Thirty Second Step lessons were taught; each lesson lasted about 35 minutes and lessons were conducted once or twice per week. Data was collected three times: before the start of the curriculum; two weeks following the conclusion of the curriculum; and six months following the curriculum. Three evaluation methods were used: teacher reports, parent reports, and direct observations. Teachers completed two assessment instruments for all enrolled children at each of the three data collection periods. Parents were asked to complete two separate assessment instruments at each of the data collection periods. Behavioral observations by trained observers in the classroom consisted of a total of sixty minutes of observation time during the first two collection periods and forty-five minutes in the third collection period. The behavior categories observed were prosocial and neutral behaviors, verbal negative behaviors, and physical negative behaviors.

The intervention and control groups demonstrated similar baseline levels of social competence and aggressive behavior as reported by teachers and parents. There was little

change between baseline and postintervention periods in both of these groups as measured by teachers and parents. The trained observers noted changes in behavior during collections two and three. Reductions were greatest in the least structured settings-playground and cafeteria-where aggression most frequently occurs. Control students showed increases in negative behavior over the school year in all settings. A summary of the overall effect of the curriculum indicates that, across the entire period of the study, there was a borderline decrease on the playground and in the cafeteria in negative physical behavior, a borderline increase on the playground and in the cafeteria in neutral and prosocial behavior, and a decrease in physical negative behavior across all settings. Grossman et al. reached the following conclusion:

> We conclude that this violence prevention curriculum appears to lead to modest reductions in levels of aggressive behavior and increases in neutral and prosocial behavior in school among second and third graders. Some of these effects appear to persist at six months following exposure. However, the impact of this intervention on behavior outside of the school is unknown. Though these results are encouraging, such interventions may need to be accompanied by other interventions in early childhood and adolescence to further reduce aggressive behavior (1997).

"The results provide encouraging evidence that use of Second Step reduces children's levels of aggressive behavior and increases socially competent behavior. The findings further suggest that these changes endure over time" (Frey et al., 2000, p. 109). In more practical terms: "At 22 students per class and six school hours per day, the changes amount to about 30 fewer acts of 'negative physical behavior' and more than 800 more acts of 'neutral/prosocial behavior' per class every day" (Rosenberg et al., 1997, p. 1641).

In order for children to act nonviolently, and therefore to reduce aggressive incidents in the classroom and beyond, it is necessary for them to learn tolerance for others who are different from them. Intolerance and bias, as well as misconceptions of those who are different, are often the basis for conflicts among children.

According to Dermon-Sparks, antibias curriculum assists children in acquiring the attitudes, knowledge, and skills they will need to live effectively in a very diverse world. It teaches children respect for and acceptance of those of different gender, race, ethnicity, and physical ability. Early childhood programs have the responsibility to actively challenge the impact of bias on children's development. By the time children are four years old, they have already internalized stereotypic gender roles, racial bias, and fear of the differently abled. Goleman (1995) also discusses prejudice as a kind of emotional learning that occurs early in life and that, if left unchallenged, becomes very difficult to eradicate in later life. The Teaching Tolerance Project (1997) state that white children and children of color develop prejudice in different ways. At the age of four, white children begin to notice the ways in which people are similar to or different from themselves; at this age they identify pictures of black children as "bad" or as least preferred playmates. Most three to six year old black children do not have group preferences or reject playmates that are different from themselves. Around the age of seven, they begin to form attachments to their own group and to develop neutral attitudes toward whites but negative attitudes towards Native Americans, Hispanics, and Asians. Children in this later group tend to develop racial attitudes in a similar way as black children. "Prejudice in young children exists in all racial and ethnic groups. It hurts those who practice it, those whom it targets, and those who witness it...Teachers and parents have a responsibility to intervene in order to minimize these elements in children's live" (Teaching Tolerance Project, 1997).

The antibias approach not only teaches children to understand and interact comfortably with differences but also to appreciate all people's similarities and to recognize and confront ideas and behaviors that are biased. It takes multiculturalism a step further. It addresses more than cultural diversity by including gender and differences in physical abilities and by following children's developmental levels as they construct identity and attitudes. By using an antibias curriculum, an early childhood teacher assists students in learning about racial differences, disabilities, gender identity, and cultural differences; in learning to resist stereotyping, bias, and discriminatory behavior; and in learning assertion skills as well as empathy skills (Dermon-Sparks et al., 1989).

Parks (1999) describes three consecutive steps in reducing racial bias in schools. First, she advocates that prevention programs include specific instruction to identify racist influences and prevent them from taking hold of the minds and hearts of children. Prevention programs include antibias curriculums, peace education, moral reasoning education, critical thinking, and emotional intelligence training. Her second approach is abatement designed to reduce racial tension and barriers that become divisive if left unattended. Abatement programs include antiviolence education, cooperative learning, conflict resolution training, peer mediation training, and diversity training. Her third step is healing which is accomplished through opportunities for children of all races and cultures to develop their own ethnic identities and to work in multiracial settings.

According to the Teaching Tolerance Project (1997), many early childhood teachers recognize that teaching tolerance, as part of the curriculum is just as important and fundamental as teaching reading. The early childhood classroom is often the first experience outside of the home for young children. The teacher's ability (or inability) to create a caring and warm

community in the classroom will color a child's ideas and expectations about equity, cooperation, and citizenship for a very long time. Teachers who foster tolerance, justice, and peace in their classrooms have goals that include dispelling stereotypes and prejudice, fostering respect for differences, and building a warm and caring community for all students.

The Teaching Tolerance Project (1997) describes early childhood classrooms where children are helped to develop a sense of pride in and a language to describe their own heritage; are encouraged to explore differences of all kinds; are helped to develop a sense of justice from their early concepts of fairness and to recognize bias; and are helped to confront and eliminate the biases they discover. These are classrooms where no one is allowed to be excluded from groups or activities on the basis of gender, physical ability, or ethnicity. Most of these classrooms begin by teaching children emotional literacy- the capacity to recognize and deal with a wide range of emotions in themselves and others. Social skills such as group play, sharing, and problem solving are specifically taught. All of the classrooms are staffed by caring teachers who frequently reflect on their personal identities and their practices in the classroom and who have developed the capacity to interact constructively with any child regardless of race, gender or disability. All of these things combined in the early childhood classroom create a community that flourishes because each member values the others' unique attributes, experiences, and ideas. "In the face of widespread inequity and intolerance, the early childhood classroom can be a place of quiet revolution" (Teaching Tolerance Project, 1997).

American education allows students to learn in three different ways: cooperatively, competitively and individually. Research on these three methods of learning has shown that cooperative learning promotes greater effort to achieve, promotes more positive relationships

among students, and results in greater psychological adjustment, self-esteem, and social competence (Johnson and Johnson, 1994).

> The ability of all students to learn to work cooperatively with others is the keystone to building and maintaining stable marriages, families, careers and friendships. Being able to perform technical skills such as reading, speaking, listening, writing, computing, problem solving, etc., are valuable but of little use if the person cannot apply those skills in cooperative interaction with other people in career, family, and community settings (Johnson and Johnson, 1988).

Social skills are best learned when skills are generalized, used in a natural setting, integrated across the curriculum, and taught with direct instruction and modeling when necessary (Fad and Ross and Boston, 1995). Cooperative learning is one strategy that promotes social skill development.

Cooperative learning is defined as a group working together to accomplish shared goals (Johnson and Johnson, 1988). Cooperative learning incorporates the following principles: positive interdependence, individual accountability, face-to-face interaction, social skills, and group processing. In cooperative groups each student has a responsibility, the group works toward one end goal, social skills are practiced, the group reflects on the process, and face-to-face contact is required. All five elements must be included in an authentic cooperative learning lesson. Practice and transfer of social skills is imperative in cooperative learning lessons. Marcus and McDonald (as cited in Bellanca and Fogarty, 1991) require five elements for cooperative learning: higher order thinking skills, student unity, individual learning, reflection of cooperative learning process, and social skills. The success of cooperative learning with young children depends on shared mutual goal, decision making, sharing of

ideas, and materials, negotiation and bargaining, coordination of actions for an end goal and evaluation of progress (Slaby et al., 1995).

The ultimate goal of learning is the transference of student knowledge to application. Cooperative learning allows for the transference of social skills practiced during cooperative learning lesson to be used during regular classroom situations. Results also showed a greater transfer of what is learned from one situation to another using cooperative learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1989).

Research also consistently supports the use of cooperative learning in diverse groups. Students working in heterogeneous groups create more positive relationships in a cooperative learning situation (Johnson and Johnson, 1989). After 40 experiments with multicultural and mainstreamed special needs students, Johnson and Johnson have found heterogeneous cooperative learning groups are successful when the following guidelines are employed: students must follow the five elements of cooperative learning; recognize their own personal identity and use a pluralistic view of cooperative learning; gain respect for discussions to dismiss any misunderstanding about gender, social class, ethnic and cultural backgrounds; and finally, clarify and use appropriate language when communicating with diverse members (Johnson and Johnson, 1989)

"Cooperative learning also decreases the risk factors that influence children and adolescents to use violence and other destructive strategies in managing conflicts" (Johnson and Johnson, 1995, p. 30). Cooperative learning reduces alienation, increases academic achievement and creates healthier self-esteem. Cooperation encompasses sharing, mutual respect, problem solving skills, and encouragement. Increasing cooperation skills is important

in reducing violence and empowering students to use social skills, thus reducing the use of violence (Slaby et al., 1995).

Howard Gardner's pluralistic view of the mind has gained acceptance in the education field through the use of the eight multiple intelligences (MI). The eight intelligences are: musical/rhythmic which relates to pitch and musical rhythm; verbal/linguistic which relates to the use of language; logical/mathematical which relates to reasoning in mathematical and scientific ideas; naturalist which relates to the way one adapts and is aware of one's environment; bodily/kinesthetic which relates to the ability to control one's body and movement; visual/spatial which relates to creating mental images and representing visual information accurately; interpersonal which focuses on working with other people; and intrapersonal which relies on one's own feelings and introspection (Chapman, 1993). In the past, students have mostly received education through the logical-mathematical and linguistic intelligences. According to Gardner, "each intelligence is based, at least initially, on biological potential which then gets expressed as a result of the interplay of genetic and environmental factors" (1993, p. 88). Gardner's theory suggests the role of education is to develop all eight intelligences, realizing the each student will have strengths and weaknesses in different intelligences.

The implication of multiple intelligences in the early childhood classroom should emphasize opportunity (Gardner, 1993). Early childhood educators should promote all eight intelligences in the classroom for maximum learning and development.

Researchers at Harvard Project Zero designed the Spectrum battery to measure working styles and intelligences in young children. In a longitudinal study started in 1987-88, the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scale and the Spectrum battery were administered to students at the

beginning of the year. The Spectrum battery was able to identify student's strengths and weaknesses. The Stanford-Binet did not predict performances in the ten Spectrum activities (Gardner, 1993). The Spectrum battery verified that fifteen out of twenty children had at least one strong intelligence domain and twelve out of twenty children had at least one weak intelligence domain (Gardner, 1993). Three-quarters of the students used several intelligences depending on the content area (Gardner, 1993).

A developmentally appropriate practice for young children includes the use of quality children's literature to develop social and emotional skills. Pictures books allow for transfer of feelings of respect and understanding and opening communication with children (Marshell, 1998). It is important not to ignore issues of diversity but to confront them. Derman-Sparks (1989) states that young children notice differences in others and develop attitudes about themselves and others. Children's literature allows students an avenue to discuss, reflect, and question diversity issues.

Prosocial and antiviolent themes can also be addressed through children's literature. Incorporating role-playing and material that promote discussions of stories also support social skill development (Slaby et al., 1995). The Teaching Tolerance Project suggests acting out social and moral issues through children's books (1997). Interactive storytelling allow students and teachers to comment on the social values, behaviors, and feelings in the book (Slaby et al., 1995).

Careful selection of children's literature is necessary. In a study by Slaby and Roedell (1982), after an aggressive story was read, students showed higher levels of aggression in the classroom. Children's literature needs to be developmentally appropriate and lead to quality discussions about social and emotional issues. In one action research project, Katherine

DeGeorge (1998) found children's literature an effective tool to increase transference of social skills taught from direct instruction. Children's literature also helps students put themselves in the place of story characters and increases perspective taking.

Project Objectives and Processes

As a result of the following interventions: (1) inclusion of cooperative learning activities in weekly lessons, (2) implementation of the Second Step Violence Prevention Program, (3) use of children's literature emphasizing social competence skills and antibiased issues, (4) the teachers inclusion of multiple intelligence theory in planning personal/social curriculum, and (5) the use of antibaised curriculum activities, all completed during the period of October 2000 to February 2001, the pre-kindergarten students from the targeted classes will increase their ability to engage in prosocial behaviors and demonstrate increased emotional intelligence in interpersonal relations. Pre and postobservation checklists, anecdotal records, and student reflections will measure the targeted student's progress.

In order to accomplish the project objectives, the following processes are necessary:

1. Cooperative learning lessons will be designed for three-five year olds using the eight multiple intelligences.
2. Second Step kits and instruction manuals will be reviewed.
3. A list of children's literature dealing with social skills and antibias issues will be compiled and lessons will be designed for each book/story will incorporate the eight intelligences.
4. A list of classroom rights and responsibilities will be compiled, discussed, and posted in the classroom.
5. All weekly lesson plans will be designed incorporating the eight intelligences.

6. A series of learning activities using antibias curriculum will be developed.

Project Action Plan

I. Cooperative Learning

A. Targeted Skills

1. Turn taking
2. Sharing time and materials
3. Eye contact
4. Active listening
5. Happy talk (encouraging words)

B. Timeline: one lesson per week (October 2000-February 2001)

C. Lesson Plan Format

1. Set up and introduce activity
2. Establish groups/pairs
3. Assign jobs and work areas
4. Complete the activity
5. Group sharing
6. Reflection (individual or group)

D. Assessment

1. Preobservational checklist late September 2000
2. Postobservational checklist mid February 2001
3. LDR student reflection once per month (4 total)

II. Second Step Violence Prevention Program

A. Targeted Skills: Empathy Training

1. Recognizing feelings (happy, sad, mad)
2. Recognizing feelings (scared, surprised, disgusted)
3. Cause and effect of ones actions
4. Fairness
5. Accident and on purpose
6. Same and different feelings
7. Active listening skills
8. Identifying feeling in certain situations
9. Words to show you care

B. Timeline

1. September 2000 pretest
2. February 2001 posttest
3. October 2000-February 2001 teach two 20-30 minute lessons per week, each lesson repeated until children understand concept being taught

C. Lesson Plan Format (established in manual)

1. Warm up activity
2. Present the photograph and the information that goes with it
3. Discussion with students of feelings involved
4. Summary by the teacher
5. Follow up activity (game, story, and role playing)

D. Assessment: individual students are given pre and posttests by teacher using Committee for Children materials in *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program*

III. Children's Literature (social skills and antibiased activities)

A. Sample list of literature

1. *It's Mine* by Leo Lionni
2. *Swimmy* by Leo Lionni
3. *The Knight and the Dragon* by Tomie dePaolo
4. *Look at Me* by Niki Daly
5. *All Alone* by Kevin Henkes
6. *It Wasn't My Fault* by Helen Lester

B. Timeline: one story time/lesson per week approximately 20-30 minutes

C. Lesson Plan Format

1. Set up/Anticipatory set (props, games)
2. Story predictions
3. Reading the story
4. Student recall of story events
5. Review illustrations
6. Application to real life

D. Assessment: Anecdotal records documenting children's behavior in social and intrapersonal relations

IV. Antibiased/Multicultural Education

A. Included in Second Step and children's literature (see II, III above)

B. Sample Lesson Plans

1. Activities for learning about the children and staff in targeted classrooms
2. Activities for learning about racial and physical differences
3. Activities for learning about disabilities and inclusion
4. Activities to expand gender roles
5. Activities to learn about cultural similarities and differences
6. Teaching children to resist stereotyping peer's behaviors in social and interpersonal relations.

C. Assessment: Anecdotal records documenting children's behavior in social and intrapersonal relations.

V. Multiple Intelligence Theory

A. Targeted early childhood classes and curriculum are designed around the multiple intelligence theory.

B. All eight multiple intelligences will be included in all of the lesson plans and activities developed in the above interventions.

VI. Emotional Intelligence Training

A. Targeted Skills

1. Empathy training
2. Self control
3. Perspective taking

B. Timeline: Rights and responsibilities complied, taught and reviewed weekly, starting October 2000

C. Assessment: Four anecdotal records per student documenting children's behavior using these skills in social and interpersonal relations

Method of Assessment

In order to assess the effects of the intervention, a teacher-made observational checklist will be used before and after the project to assess specific cooperative learning skill acquisition. Also, student verbal reflections on specific cooperative learning activities will be transcribed and recorded by teachers in a LDR chart. Finally, teachers will keep anecdotal records while observing the social skills and emotional intelligence of students during scheduled classroom times when students freely choose material, activities, and play companions.

CHAPTER 4

PROJECT RESULTS

Historical Description of the Intervention

The objective of this project was to increase the ability of pre-kindergarten students to engage in prosocial behaviors and to demonstrate increased emotional intelligence in interpersonal relations. The following interventions were used to accomplish this objective: cooperative learning lessons, *Second Step Social Skills and Antiviolence Prevention Program* lessons, children's literature dealing with social skills and antibias issues, antibias curriculum activities, and incorporation of multiple intelligence theory in all lesson planning.

All preintervention testing and observations were performed with 39 pre-k students. Sixteen students from Site A were originally involved in the interventions. However, during the course of the intervention period, three of these students left Site A and were dropped from the research activities. Twenty-three students from Site B remained involved in the entire action research project and are represented both in preintervention and postintervention data. Postintervention observations and testing represent only 36 students. Although September of 2000 was the targeted date to implement preobservations, data was not gathered until October of 2000. The classroom at Site B was new and students did not begin in this program until October of 2000.

Original planning for this research project included creating and using a rights and responsibilities chart with the targeted pre-k students. The chart was created and implemented several times in each classroom. However, the information regarding rights and responsibilities

was very difficult for the students to comprehend. After several unsuccessful attempts at simplifying this information, the teacher/researchers decided not to include the rights and responsibilities chart in their intervention strategies.

Cooperative learning lessons were conducted once per week from early October to the end of February. These lessons were designed to teach six specific social skills: turn taking, sharing materials, active listening, eye contact, on task behavior, and verbal encouragement. These social skills were initially discussed and taught through teacher modeling prior to the establishment of cooperative learning partners. Partners were established both in homogenous and heterogeneous groups. At times the pairs were set purposely by the teacher/researchers, and at other times the students were paired randomly. Typical lessons lasted approximately one half hour and were structured as follows: introduction to the activity, teacher modeling, partner organization, role assignments, activity completion, team recognition activities, and group and individual reflection. Every student in the four classes involved in the intervention was included in all cooperative learning activities. The students were always grouped in pairs. A sample cooperative learning lesson plan is in Appendix E.

Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program lessons were conducted for empathy training activities. These lessons were planned for two 20 to 30 minute sessions per week. Although this occurred at Site B, at Site A these lessons were conducted only once per week. This was done because of time constraints in scheduling the necessary curriculum activities. Despite this deviation, both sites completed the section on empathy training over the 16-week intervention time period as planned. At Site A, a parent volunteer rather than the teacher/researcher conducted Second Step lessons in the morning session. As per the training manual, several lessons were repeated at both sites until the students mastered the concepts.

Second Step lessons come as part of a kit that is distributed by the Committee for Children. These lessons include recognition of six basic emotions (happy, sad, angry, sacred, surprised, and disgusted) as well as the use of these emotions in social situations. Each lesson begins with a short warm-up activity that focuses the students' attention. Students are then lead through a discussion using black and white photographs depicting a social situation or demonstrating a particular emotion. Lessons are completed with role-playing situations that relate to the skills in the lesson just taught. All lessons also include additional games or books that reinforce the social skills.

Children's literature incorporating social skills and antibias issues were used at Site A once each week of the intervention period as planned. Discussions and applications of the story material were included as part of these activities. At Site B children's literature emphasizing social skills and antibias issues was used in the classroom but not on a weekly basis. There were some weeks that these stories could not be logically included in the current projects or themes being taught. There were also some weeks when several of these books were utilized together. Approximately the same amount of books was used in both classrooms. The books used in these classrooms dealt with friendship, self-esteem, cooperation, similarities and differences of people, culture, ethnicity, emotions, listening, social responsibility, equity, and personal uniqueness. For a complete listing of these books see Appendix F.

In addition to the activities listed above, antibias curriculum was used throughout the intervention period at Site B. This was accomplished through an "All About Me" project that encompassed six weeks of direct teaching and that remained a part of the curriculum for the remainder of the intervention. Although not presented as a complete unit, many of the same activities were also taught and discussed at Site A at various times throughout the intervention. Antibias curriculum includes lessons designed to help reduce prejudice in racial, ethnic, gender,

physical ability, and sexual issues. A sample antibias lesson plan is located in Appendix G. Because Site B is physically located in the same hallway as the high school's orthopedic department, this site was able to include two volunteers from this program in their activities. Both volunteers were diagnosed with Cerebral Palsy and were in wheelchairs. Each differently-abled young adult participated in classroom activities once per week for about an hour throughout the intervention period. Anecdotal notes were used to evaluate the pre-k students' learning in this area.

Multiple intelligence activities are naturally incorporated in the pre-k curriculum. Early childhood education places emphasis on providing experiences for the whole child across all areas of the child's development and all learning styles. Multiple intelligences were integrated into all of the interventions used in this project as evidenced in the sample lesson plans listed in Appendices E and G.

Presentation and Analysis of Results

In order to assess the effects of the use of cooperative learning on the pre-k students involved in this research, preobservational checklist data can be compared to postobservational checklist data. (See Appendix H for sample observational checklist.) These checklists include six targeted social skills that were taught during cooperative learning activities. Turn taking was observed both in student conversations and in activities. Sharing materials encompassed paired students cooperatively using the same objects. Active listening occurred when the students were looking at each other, were not talking at the same time, and were not engaged in any other activity. During cooperative learning activities, students were expected to maintain eye contact when conversing and sharing information. Verbal encouragement or happy talk was observed when the students used encouraging and

supportive words and behaviors. On-task behavior included the students remaining with partners, staying focused on the planned activity, and completing the activity. Figure 5 and Figure 6 below display the cooperative learning pre- and postintervention data collected.

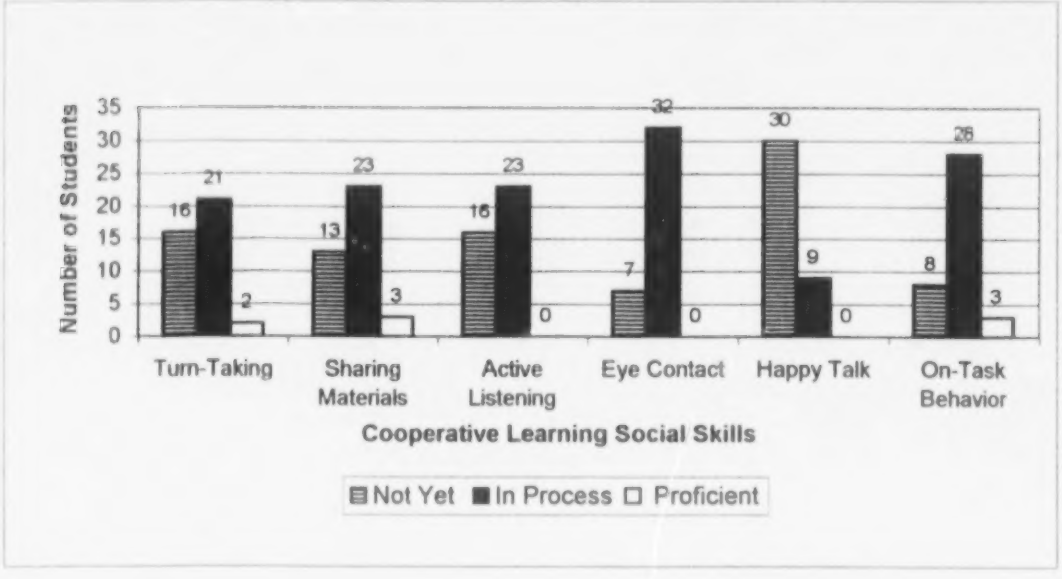

Figure 5. Preintervention cooperative learning social skills data gathered in October 2000.

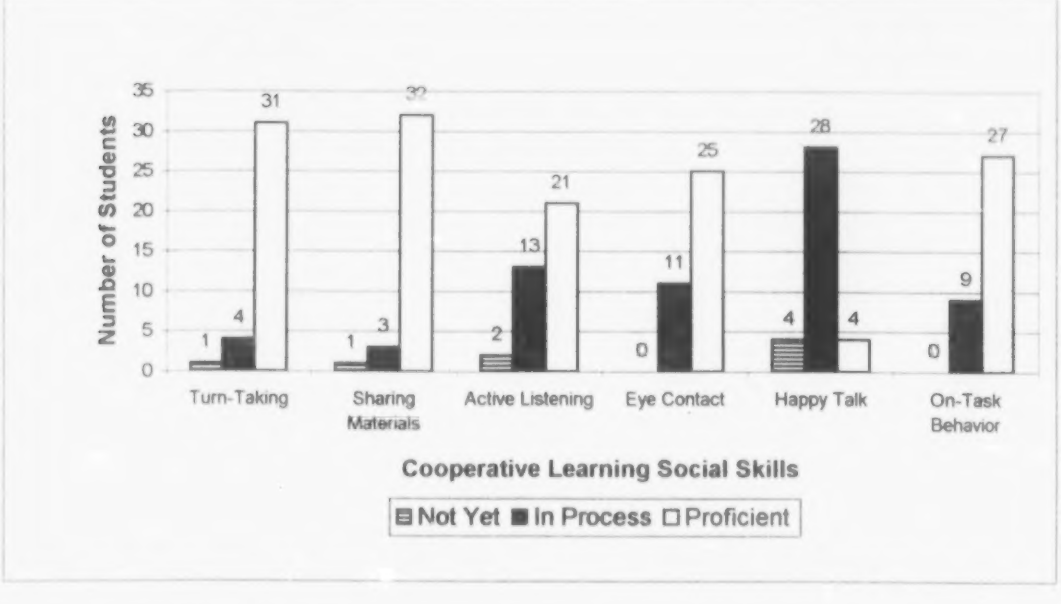

Figure 6. Postintervention cooperative learning social skills data gathered in March 2001.

Figure 5 indicates that few students were proficient in using the targeted social skills before the intervention began. Proficiency occurs when the students demonstrate the knowledge and behavior necessary to use these social skills consistently. In process occurs when the skills are emerging, and the students use the skills intermittently, inconsistently, or unreliably. Not yet occurs when the students cannot perform the skills at all. Eye contact and on-task behavior were skills emerging in a majority of the students. Eighty-two percent of the students were in the process of learning eye contact skills, and 72% were in the process of learning on-task behavior skills. Seventy-seven percent of the students were unable to exhibit happy talk skills. The skills of turn taking, sharing materials, and active listening were more closely distributed between not yet and in process. Of the 39 children observed, only 2 demonstrated proficiency in turn taking, 3 in sharing materials, and 3 in on-task behavior. Proficiencies occurred 3.4% of the time across the six skill areas. A lack a proficiency in these six skills by a majority of the students was expected by the teacher/researchers at this time. This data was gathered early in the school year, and most of the students were not yet exposed to working cooperatively.

Figure 6 indicates that a majority of students became proficient in turn taking, sharing materials, active listening, eye contact, and on-task behavior over the intervention period. Using happy talk was the only skill area in which proficiencies did not out number skills in process or not yet developed. Seventy-eight percent of the 36 students observed were in the process of learning how to use happy talk. Across all six social skill areas, only 4% of the totals remain in the not-yet category.

In comparing preintervention data and postintervention data, five social skill areas showed major increases in proficiency ratings. Proficiency increased as follows: turn taking 81%, sharing materials 81%, active listening 58%, eye contact 69%, and on-task behavior 67%.

Although there was only an 11% increase in proficiency in happy talk, the not-yet category decreased 66% and the in-process category increased 55 %. This data indicates that the students made significant progress in utilizing these six social skills during cooperative learning lessons.

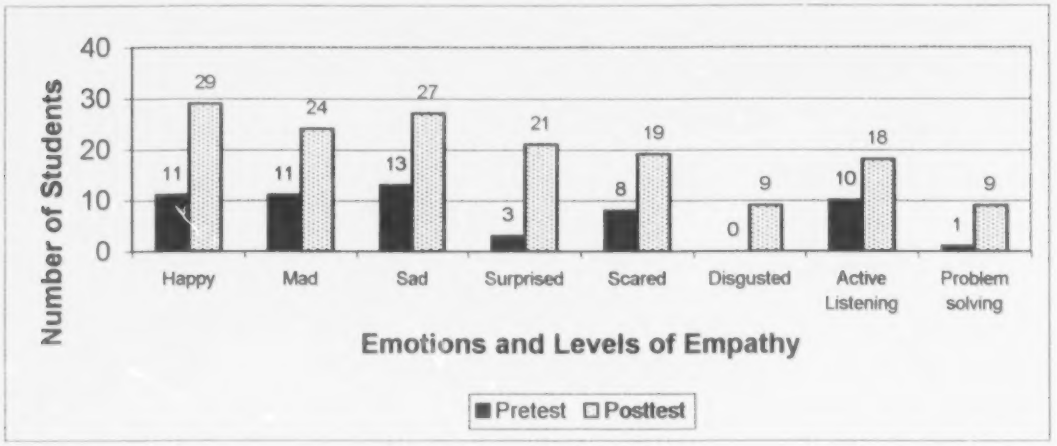

Figure 7. Second Step pretest data collected in October 2000 and posttest data collected in March 2001 which indicate the various emotions and levels of empathy recognized by the students.

The posttest was conducted in the exact same manner as the pretest with the students looking at photographs, identifying the emotions pictured, and telling how they knew what the emotions were by describing body language and facial features. All eight areas showed a significant increase in the number of students who successfully demonstrated an understanding of the emotion or level of empathy portrayed in the photographs. Increases by area are as follows: happy 62%, mad 54%, sad 52%, surprised 86%, sacred 58%, disgusted 100%, active listening 44%, and problem solving 89%. Although the greatest increases occurred in recognizing the emotion disgusted and the social skills involved in problem solving, in actuality only 25% of the students involved in the posttest were able to recognize these emotions or situations.

The teacher/researchers found that the photograph depicting the emotion disgusted confused the students; it was difficult to see the facial expression of the child in the photograph or what he was holding. This factor significantly affected in the number of students who recognized the emotion disgusted. Also significant in this posttest data is the fact that two ESL students at Site B were unable to communicate recognition or understanding of the emotions and social situations taught. Their responses were recorded in the data as showing no progress. The recognition of all of these emotions and social situations was directly taught to the students in the *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program* that was used over the intervention period. Increases indicate the level of retention and understanding achieved by the students.

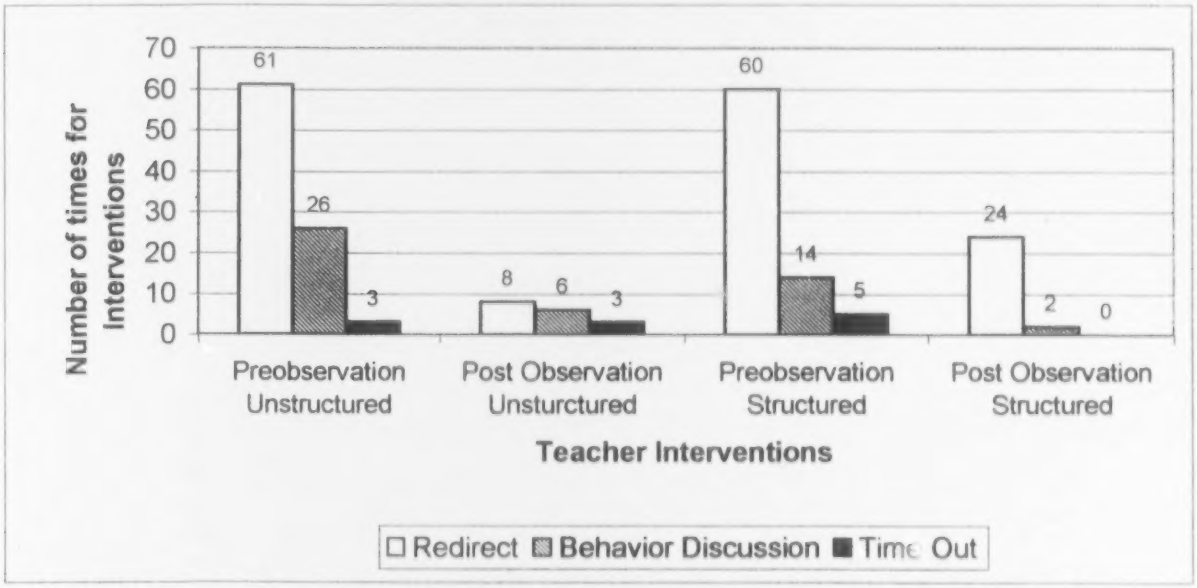

Figure 8. This data represents preobservations and postobservations of teacher interventions used in structured and unstructured activities.

Postintervention observations were conducted in the same manner as preintervention observations. Each of the four classes of students was observed by the teacher/researchers twice during structured times and twice during unstructured times. There were a total of eight observations during structured activities and an additional eight observations during unstructured

activities. Teacher/researcher redirection of student behavior decreased by 87% during unstructured activities and 60% during structured activities. Discussions regarding student behaviors decreased 77% during unstructured times and 86% during structured times. Time outs given for inappropriate behaviors remained the same in unstructured activities and decreased by 100% in structured activities from five incidences to no incidences. The teaching assistant at Site A imposed the three time outs given during postintervention observations during unstructured activities. The teacher/researcher at Site A would not have given time outs for these same behaviors. Because the time outs occurred during the observation period, the data is included in the Figure 8.

Significant decreases occurred in all three types of interventions required for inappropriate behaviors. Some decrease was anticipated by the teacher/researchers. This was an initial school experience for many of the pre-k students in October when preintervention data was gathered. As students become acclimated to classroom rules and routines and to interacting with each other, a natural decrease in inappropriate behavior occurs. The teacher/researchers were unable to determine how much of the decreases that occurred were the result of normal developmental progress and how much were the result of the interventions.

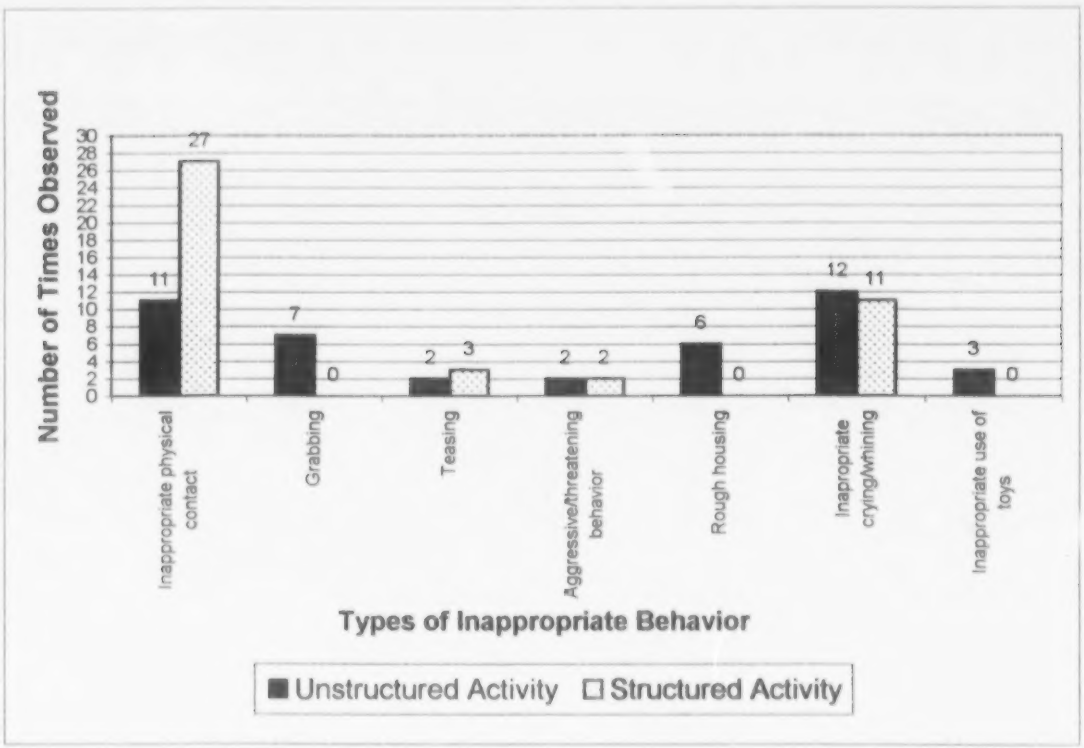

Figure 9. This data represents preintervention observations of inappropriate student behavior during structured and unstructured activities in October 2000.

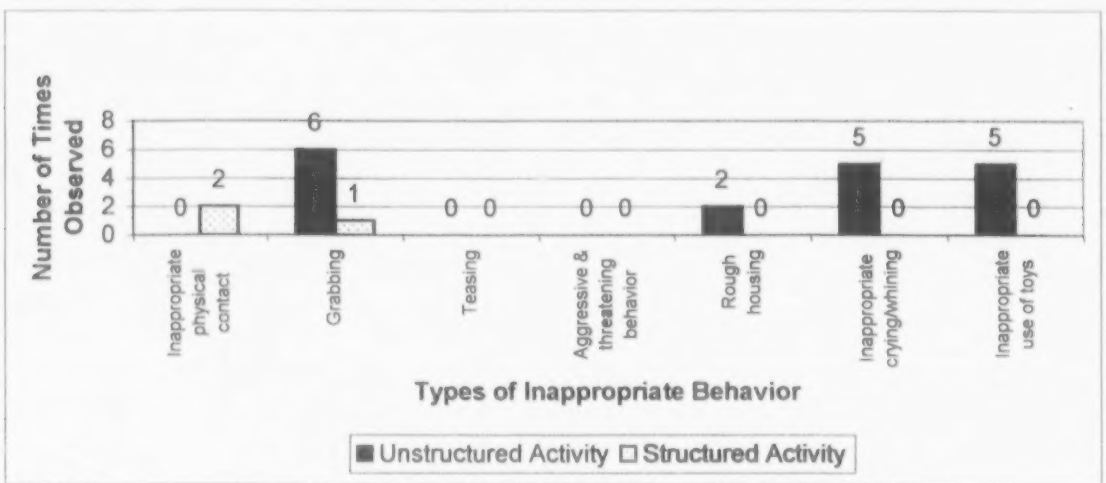

Figure 10. This data represents postintervention observation of inappropriate student behavior during structured and unstructured activities in March 2001.

This data indicates that there was a 93% decrease in inappropriate physical contact during structured activities and a 100% decrease (from 11 incidences to 0 incidences) during unstructured activities. Teacher/researchers attribute observing more positive interpersonal relationships among their students to this significant decrease in inappropriate physical contact. Grabbing showed a 14% decrease during unstructured activities from seven to six occurrences. Four of these six occurrences involved the same student experiencing the same problem sharing a puppet on different occasions. Grabbing increased by a single episode during structured lessons from none to one incident. This occurred when a student reached for materials out of turn during a cooperative learning lesson. Teasing decreased from five combined incidences in structured and unstructured observations to zero incidences. The same is true of aggressive and threatening behavior which decreased from four combined incidences to zero. Rough housing decreased 67% in unstructured activities and remained at zero incidences in structured activities.

Inappropriate crying and whining decreased by 58% during unstructured observations and by 100% (from 11 to 0 incidences) during structured observations. This decrease during structured observations is due in most part to increased student acceptance of cooperative learning activities and partners. Inappropriate use of toys increased by 40% or two incidences during unstructured activities. Of the five incidences of inappropriate use of toys observed in the posttest, three involved the same student; two of these episodes involved role playing with guns and one involved climbing on indoor equipment related to this role playing. The most significant reductions in inappropriate behavior occurred in physical contact, rough housing, teasing, and crying and whining.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Based on the presentation and analysis of the data on cooperative learning, *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program*, and antibias curriculum, the students showed a significant improvement in interpersonal relationships and conflict resolution and problem solving abilities. These newly learned skills appear to have transferred to the students' social interactions beyond the structured activities in which they were taught. The amount of teacher time and energy devoted to intervening in student disputes and inappropriate behaviors was reduced. The teacher/researchers still assisted students in utilizing the language skills necessary to problem solve with their peers. This, however, was the result of some of the students' delayed speech and language abilities rather than their lack of prosocial behavior. Anecdotal records kept by the teacher/researchers documented transfer of learning to all areas of the students' development.

Anecdotal records kept during cooperative learning lessons along with those kept during unstructured activities demonstrated consistent use of the taught social skills. The students at both sites engaged in cooperative learning lessons with more enthusiasm and were more accepting of different partners at the end of the intervention. Beginning in December 2000, the students at Site B requested to work with buddies every time they settled on the rug for structured activities. The question "Are we going to work with buddies today?" was consistently recorded in the anecdotal notes taken throughout the intervention. In student reflections of cooperative learning lessons, most children listed working with a buddy as what they liked best about the activity. Although not a targeted outcome for cooperative learning in this action research, the teacher/researchers also noted an increased ability in the students' use of expressive language as they engaged in higher order thinking skills.

Several of the targeted skills for cooperative learning transferred to the students' interactions at other times during the day. The students were observed using happy talk while at play in center times. When watching a peer complete a puzzle, Jonathan stated, "You did a really good job!" and when observing a classmate master a computer game, Amy stated, "You did it!" Michael was observed six times patting classmates on the back in support of their efforts. Sharing materials and turn taking were recorded in unstructured activities as well. Many times the teacher/researchers recorded students saying, "It's your turn." or observed them voluntarily taking turns. More occurrences of sharing were recorded in anecdotal notes as the intervention progressed.

Like-Dislike-Remember (LDR) charts were used to record the students' reflections after cooperative learning lessons. (See Appendix I for LDR chart.) At the beginning of the intervention, these charts showed little true reflection; they were superficial and repetitive. For example, comments recorded were "I was happy," "I liked it," and "Me draw." At the end of the intervention period, these recorded comments demonstrated more in-depth thinking. Some examples are: "I liked picking my partners, Kathy and Kelly," "I didn't like working with George cuz he wasn't doing the right thing," "I wanted to work with Jamia," and "I liked it cuz I liked the color she made me-it make me happy." This demonstrates how the students became more thoughtful regarding their own learning and more socially aware as the intervention progressed.

Transfer of the social training in Second Step occurred as the students demonstrated increased empathy for their peers. Anecdotal records supply evidence of this positive change in behavior. Students noticed and responded to more feelings, facial expressions, and body language. For example, an angry Dontarius said to his peer, "Look at my face! Do I look happy to you?" After watching Miguel knock down a peer's block structure, Rosa said, "Look at

Linda. That made her sad!" Kim noticed, "William has a happy face cuz it's his birthday!" The students noticed that the teacher was upset when they did not clean up and said, "Look at Mrs. W. She's mad!" Children's literature was used to reinforce the concepts taught in Second Step. The students at Site A recognized the feelings and emotions of the characters in stories. For example, they knew a story character felt sad by looking at the illustration in the book.

The teacher/researchers believe that two of the benefits of using this empathy-training program with pre-k students are its inclusion of role playing social situations and its ability for skill transfer to other activities. The inclusion of role play of social situations as they are typically experienced by young children gives students the words to use as well as the modeled methods of problem solving in authentic situations. When the teachers also model these skills, students become more aware and intuitive in their own behavior. The effectiveness of student transfer depends on the teacher's ability to consistently facilitate the use of these skills in the classroom. The teacher/researchers recommend that these lessons not be taught in isolation, but that they permeate the whole classroom environment.

Anecdotal records were also used to document the ability of the students to understand antibias issues. One of the ways the teacher/researchers explored race and ethnicity came form the Southern Poverty Law Center's Teaching Tolerance book Starting Small. This lesson (Appendix G) helped the students explore and label their various skin colors beyond the typical black and white. At Site B the class had lengthy discussions about similarities and differences among students. Jamia, an African American student, and Katie, a Caucasian student, became best friends during the intervention period. During a class discussion on individual talents, Jamia expressed a dislike of her skin color; she wanted to have light skin like Katie because they were best friends. A similar situation occurred in another class between Jay, who is Caucasian, and Darian, who is African American. Jay wanted to have dark skin like his best friend. This

prompted a deeper discussion on race, ethnicity, and celebrating individual differences. The students came to the conclusion that Jamia summarized, "Skin don't matter with friends and friends don't have to match cuz they just have to be nice." Several weeks later, after listening to a story about a rabbit and a duck that were friends, Darian said, "They're different like me and Jay, and they're friends like me and Jay too!"

Antibias curriculum extended beyond issues of race. The students were introduced to concepts of gender and ability equity as well. The learning that resulted transferred out of structured group activities and into the life of the classroom. Anecdotal records document several instances of gender stereotyping among the pre-k students. The following statements provide typical examples: "Boys don't play with dolls," Girls don't play with the cars," and "Boys don't wear dress-up clothes." This promoted class discussions of gender biases where students were ultimately able to give examples of gender equity. For example, Erika said, "Darian can wear the hat and shirt and be the dad with the baby." Site B had two differently-abled high school student volunteers. As a result, pre-k students became more aware of specialized equipment. They argued over who would get to push the wheelchairs to return the volunteers to their classes and who would be allowed to work on the wheelchair trays with the young adults. During a field trip to the public library, the students at Site B noticed the wheelchair accessible button on the entrance doors. David said, "See that. That's so Miss Joy can come into this library."

The teacher/researchers believe that the use of antibias curriculum gave students the opportunity to explore topics that are not usually addressed at this age level. Although it is difficult to measure the effect this will have on their prejudices in the future, the teacher/researchers believe that the introduction of these concepts at an early age promotes an

awareness of equity issues in the pre-k students. The students began to accept themselves and each other because of, rather than despite, their differences.

As a result of this project, the teacher/researchers conclude that prosocial behavior and emotional intelligence were increased in the targeted pre-k students. Not only is this evidenced in the data collected and analyzed but also in the anecdotal records that demonstrate transfer and utilization of emotionally intelligent behavior. Implementation of cooperative learning, empathy training, antibias curriculum, and children's literature have produced measurable and observable increases in the students' abilities to engage in positive interpersonal relationships, to handle conflict situations, and to use problem solving in social interactions.

Several variables and factors influenced the accuracy of the data presented in this research. First, some normal development occurs over the course of a school year in students' acquisition of social skills. As students become acclimated to the structure of the classroom, learn class rules and routines, and develop new interpersonal relationships with adults and peers, they become progressively more prosocial and exhibit greater emotional intelligence. Based on their past experiences in the classroom, the teacher/researchers believe the level of prosocial behavior and emotional intelligence achieved during the intervention period greatly surpasses that achieved in past years. It is, however, impossible to ascertain how much of the increases documented in the empirical data are truly the result of the interventions.

Second, the data documents that the students retained increases in prosocial behavior during the 16-week intervention period. This is, however, a relatively short intervention period. The research statistics would be more accurate if they documented long-term retention of prosocial behavior over the course of an entire school year or even from one school year to the next.

Third, the teacher/researchers arbitrarily chose which structured and unstructured activity times were observed for data collection. If these observations had occurred at different times,

the data could change significantly. This is especially true considering the small number of targeted pre-k students involved in the project. By including eight different observation times per site in the data collection, the teacher/researchers attempted to ameliorate some of the opportunity for this type of error. They assume that the data represents a true sample of the behaviors exhibited by the students over an extensive time period.

Upon completion of this project, the teacher/researchers recommend that early childhood educators emphasize increasing emotional intelligence and teaching prosocial behavior by including the following in their curriculums: weekly cooperative learning activities; weekly violence prevention, conflict resolution, and social skills instruction, specifically the Committee for Children's *Second Step Social Skills and Violence Prevention Program*; on-going antibias lessons and instruction; and children's literature related to social and antibias issues. It is, however, recommended that future teacher/researchers limit the number of interventions used per action research project to a maximum of two. In this project, the use of multiple interventions over a 16-week period made documentation and analysis difficult and contributed to a lengthy report.

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Appendices

Appendix A
Teacher Intervention Observations

_____ # of times a teacher redirects

_____ # of times teacher talks to child about behavior

_____ # of times a teacher puts a child in time out

_____ # of times a teacher takes child out of room

CHILD OBSERVATIONS

_____ # times a child touches another person/ physical contact

_____ # of times child grabs/takes away

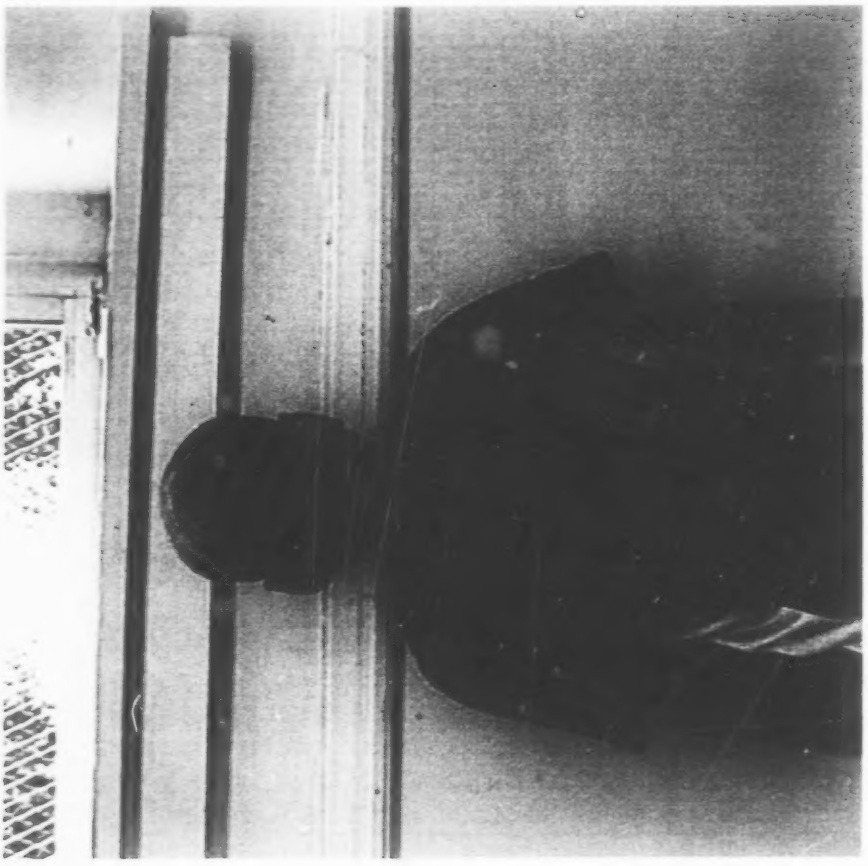
_____ # of times child name calls

_____ # of times child teases another

_____ # of times child uses inappropriate crying/ whining

_____ # of times child uses toys inappropriately

Appendix B



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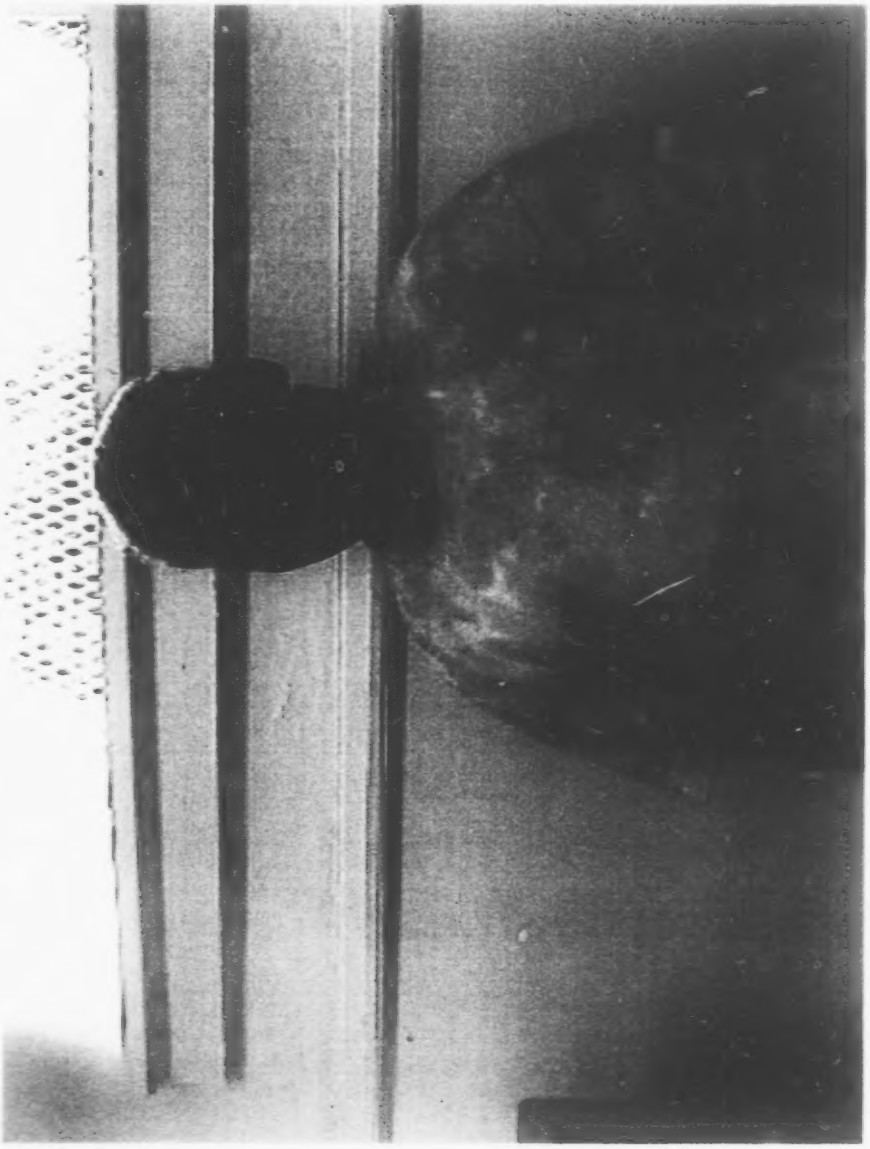

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Appendix C
Site A Teacher Survey

1. What are the three most important things you teach in your classroom? Please rank from highest to lowest.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

2. YES NO Do you use Second Step Violence Prevention Program in you class? (If "No" please go to question 5)

3. YES NO Do you see a decrease in student violent behavior from using Second Step?

4. YES NO Do you transfer Second Step lessons to everyday classroom life?

5. YES NO Do you teach social skills?

6. How do you teach social skills?

_____
_____
_____
_____

7. What do you think are the causes of poor social skills?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Appendix D

Early Childhood Teacher Survey

1. What are the three most important things you teach in your classroom? Please rank from highest to lowest.

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

2. YES NO Do you use Second Step Violence Prevention Program in you class? (If "No" please go to question 5)

3. YES NO Does someone else teacher the Second Step lesson?

4. YES NO Do you see a decrease in student violent behavior from using Second Step?

5. YES NO Do you transfer Second Step lessons to everyday classroom life?

6 YES NO Do you use Rights and Responsibilities? (From Emotional Intelligence Workshop last year)

7. YES NO Do you see a difference in student behavior in classroom situations using Rights and Responsibilities?

8. YES NO Do you transfer Rights and Responsibilities to everyday classroom life?

9. YES NO Do you teach social skills?

10. How do you teach social skills?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix E
Cooperative Learning Lesson Plan: Partner Portraits

I. Introduction
This is a social studies lesson for 3, 4 and 5 year olds working in established "buddy" pairs.

II. General Goal
The child recognizes his or her own characteristics and those of others including physical commonalties and differences, talents and abilities, and language differences.

III. Objectives
- The child will verbally describe his own facial characteristics.
- The child will actively listen to his buddy's description of himself.
- The child will use paper and pencil to draw the facial characteristics of his "buddy" partner as they are described to him.

IV. Materials (for each buddy group)
Clipboard, pencil, 2 sheets white paper, hand mirror

V. Focus Activity: Modeling
The teacher will sketch the teacher associate while the TA looks in the mirror and describes herself. Then they will reverse roles and the TA will sketch the teacher. They will model appropriate conversation and question/answer skills.

VI. Procedure
The children are grouped by choosing a card that is held so they are unable to see its face. The cards contain pictures of colored bears, 2 bears of each color. The children who have matching bears are partners. Children sit in buddy pairs-head to head and knee to knee. Each pair uses their team name: Big Reds, Blues Clues, Green Weenies, Purple People Eaters, Mellow Yellows, Pink Polka Dots, Orange Orangutans, Brown Clowns. The expectations of team work are reviewed and explained: buddies give eye contact to each other when talking; buddies listen to each other when talking; buddies use "happy talk" or positive talk to encourage each other ("That's great," "I like...," "Good job!," "Keep it up!"); and buddies work together and help each other. Two roles are assigned: artist and model. The artist sketches the model while the model looks at himself in a hand mirror and describes himself. The model helps the artist by telling him what to draw, i.e.. 2 eyes, 1 nose, 2 ears, 1 earring etc. When the artist is finished, the children reverse roles so each child has a turn to both model and draw. When all pairs are finished, the children re-assemble in a large group. The teacher shows the group each buddy pair's sketches and the group gives them a cheer- "Three cheers for the Blues Clues! Hip, hip hooray! Hip, hip hooray! Hip, hip hooray!"

VII. Student Reflection
After the children in each buddy pair have completed and signed their drawings, the teacher helps each child fill out a LDR chart. (See Appendix E.) The child dictates to the

teacher what he/she liked and disliked about this activity. He/she also tells the teacher what about this activity he/she will remember most. The teacher records exactly what each child tells her.

The major skills that are used in this lesson are problem solving, decision-making and communication. Cooperative learning activities naturally lead students to use these skills. In problem solving, the group is required to make meaning and search for patterns that put information in an order that enables them to complete a task. In this lesson, the children must observe and listen in order to complete their drawings. The decision making in this cooperative learning activity takes place when the children work with others on a collaborative project. Communication is sharing information effectively with others. It involves passing information on to others, being an attentive listener and being an articulate speaker who others understand. All of these communication skills were required in this lesson.

Appendix F
Anitbiased and Social Skills Children's Book List

Anitbiased Literature

Wild Wild Hair by Mikki Grimes
All About You by Catherine & Laurence Anbalb
I Like Me by Nancy Carlson
All the Colors We Are by Katie Kissinger
We Are All Alike... We Are All Different by Cheltenham Elementary School Kindergartners
It's Not Easy Being a Bunny by Marilyn Sadler
A Kaleidoscope of Kids by Emma Damon
Two Eyes A Nose and A Mouth by Roberta Grabel
Whoever You Are by Mem Fox
You Look Funny! By Jay Kim

Social Skills

Will You Be My Friend? By Nancy Tafuri
Perfect Pigs by Marc Brown and Stephen Krensky
Let's Talk About Feelings-Being Angry by Joy Berry
Let's Talk About Feelings- Being Afraid by Joy Berry
I'm Sorry by Susan Riley
Feelings by Aliki
Feeling Afraid by Rochelle Barshun
I Am Not A Cry Baby by Norma Simon
I Hate It by Miriam Schlein
Why Am I Different? By Norma Simon
Jamaica's Find by Juanita Havill
If It Weren't For You by Charlotte Zolotow
It Wasn't My Fault by Helen Lester
It's Mine by Alicia deLynam
Six Crows by Leo Lionni
All Alone by Kevin Henkes
The Surprise Party by Pat Hutchins
I Can't Wait by Elizabeth Cray
I Want It by Elizabeth Cray
The New Friend by Charlotte Zolotow
The Little Engine That Could by Watty Piper
The Doorbell Rang by Pat Hutchins
Googles by Ezra Jack Keats
Apt. 3 by Ezra Jack Keats
One of Those Days by Pat Thomson

Letter to Amy by Ezra Jack Keats
Ira Sleeps Over by Bernard Waber
When Sophie Gets Angry-Really, Really Angry by Molly Bang
The Tale of Peter Rabbit by Beatrix Potter
The Fourth Little Pig by Teresa Celsi

Appendix G
Antibias Lesson Plan Adapted from *Starting Small*

Introduction:
This is an antibias lesson plan for 3-, 4-, and 5-year-olds to be used as a large group, circle time activity.

General Goal:
This lesson is designed to teach similarities and differences in people, to celebrate individuals, to establish skin color, and to open the door to class discussions of antibias issues.

Objectives:

- The child will recognize and discuss the different skin colors of his/her classmates.
- The child will recognize that skin colors are not black and white but shades of brown and tan.
- The child will help find a paint color that matches his/her own skin color.

Materials:
Lakeshore People Color paints, baby wipes, large tag board chart programmed in a column with each student's name, the book *All The Colors We Are*

Focus Activity:
The teacher will show the students the cover of the book *All The Colors We Are* and ask them to predict what the book is about. She will then read the book. The children will discuss and recall the information from the book.

Procedure:
(Although the written procedure may make this lesson seem rather dry and matter-of-fact, it is designed to be interactive and to stimulate extended class discussions.) The teacher will choose 1 child and ask her what color she thinks her skin is. The teacher will emphasize that skin is not black or white; she will show the students actual black and white items (black pants or shoes, white socks, etc.) The teacher will suggest that the student use the assembled paints to find a color that matches her skin. The teacher will place a dab of the chosen color on the back of the student's hand and ask her to show it to the rest of the class. She will ask the class if this color matches the child's skin. If it does, the child will find her name on the chart, and push her hand next it to leave a sample of her skin tone. The teacher will describe the color to the class in positive terms. Fro example, "Jamia is a beautiful shade of gingerbread." The teacher will write the name of the paint color on the chart next to it. (The paint colors are on the bottles. Fawn, peach, gingerbread, and mahogany are some examples.) If the paint on the child's hand dose not match, the child and the teacher will continue to choose new colors until they find one that does. Some colors may have to be mixed to achieve the correct shade for each child. The teacher will continue until each student has found his/her skin color and

it is placed and labeled on the chart. The teacher should put her own name and skin color on the chart as well. As the lesson proceeds, it is important for the teacher to assist the students in discussing the similarities and differences of their skin tones and to show excitement at the array of colors. The teacher must be willing to talk about the importance of skin color in the children's lives-how it connects them to their families and their history, how it is only one of many things that makes them a unique individual. She must also anticipate the directions their comments and discussions may take. Children often express concern that they are not like friends or relate comments that they have heard from adults that may stereotype or slur other races. The teacher must be open and honest in discussing these issues.

Conclusion:
The completed chart will be left in the classroom. The recorded colors can be used later to help the children paint "Me Dolls" to replicate themselves. This activity is designed to be the beginning of many others that explore antibias issues.

Additional Resources:
A complete list of pertinent children's literature can be found in Appendix F. The book *Starting Small* published by the Southern Poverty Law Center's Teaching Tolerance Program is an excellent resource to help teachers use antibias curriculum in their classrooms.

Appendix H

Cooperative Learning Social Skills Observational Checklist

Name Age

	Pre	Post
	September-00	February-01
Turn-taking		
Sharing Materials		
Active Listening		
Eye Contact		
Happy Talk		
On Task		

NY- not yet
IP- in process
P- proficient

Comments:

Child's Name:
Date:
Activity:

LIKE/DISLIKE/REMEMBER CHART

WHAT I LIKED	WHAT I DISLIKED	WHAT I WILL REMEMBER